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ART. I. *Historical Sketch of the Origin, Progress, and present State of Trade and Commerce in general, with the Produce and Manufacture of each Country in the four Quarters of the Globe.*

COMMERCE may be defined to be the exchange of the natural or artificial productions of a country for those of another, either by barter, or by representative signs of their value: and as coin or bullion is the most general representative of the value of other commodities, the profits of commerce are hence frequently, but erroneously, estimated by the quantity of money it brings into a country. But a very beneficial trade may be carried on without any balance being payable in money: or that balance may (as is the case with Britain) be absorbed by payments on other accounts: for notwithstanding our commerce has long been in a very flourishing state, and has been extended to a degree unparalleled in history, yet the quantity of specie and of bullion in the country has not been materially augmented.

The most early mode of carrying on trade was obviously by barter: for it must strike every reflecting individual; that commerce is nearly co-eval with the creation: and a very small in-

crease of mankind was sufficient to prove its utility, and to demonstrate the natural dependance our species had upon one another. By the wise dispensation of Providence, their simple occupations were suited to their wants; and the diligent discharge of the one rendered sufficient to supply the moderate demands of the other; and though agriculture, or the feeding of flocks, were the sole labours of the first inhabitants, yet (limited as they were) they could not be exercised with that comfort their great Creator designed them, without mutual correspondence and traffic; and hence (notwithstanding the plausible and confessedly ingenious but erroneous arguments which have recently been adduced, to evince the possibility of a state existing "*independent of commerce,*") an exchange of commodities necessarily took place. Such was the origin of commerce in the infant world, and in this state it continued so long as our progenitors could content themselves with these riches of nature, and were not obliged by a growing posterity, to alter their method in disposing of them. In consequence, however, of the increase of mankind, and the progress of civilization, commercial intercourse became more extended, and other representative signs were found to be necessary, This led to the discovery of coin or money: and, as buying and selling, through that medium were found most convenient in their commercial transactions, this method was invented and adopted in lieu of barter by the most polished nations, and by whom it has been transmitted to us, with the exception of those savages, where the use of coin has hitherto remained unknown, and their traffic is carried on in the primitive way, though not always with primitive simplicity. Previously, however, to this change, and before the great increase of population, their desires were easily satisfied, being limited by their wants: they contentedly made the fleece of their sheep serve them for clothing, and their hunger found a ready supply from their gardens and kine: a neighbouring spring slacked their thirst; and a tree, or a tent, was sufficient to defend them from the inclemencies of weather, in those climes where the first race was settled.—Their labour procured them a satisfactory support, and the products of the earth and of their

cattle served them both for necessaries and regales, till corruption brought in fraud: this gave birth to avarice and violence; the stronger began to invade the weaker; and, as these oppressive acquisitions could only be maintained by force and policy, cities were built, and governments formed. Afterwards, when by this means an aggregated number swelled to too great a magnitude, to have their necessities supplied by their neighbouring territories, they were compelled to seek for remoter helps through the medium of commerce. Although it cannot be concealed that the introduction of commerce led the way to luxury and excess; which, progressively increasing with the extension of trade, ultimately undermined that simplicity of manners and utterly subverted the primeval state of society; yet the increase of mankind, and the consequent peopling of different parts and continents, rendered the continuation of commerce absolutely necessary for their comfort and support. Without this means of mutual assistance, life itself would have proved burthensome.

At length the views and designs, the desires and wants of men expanding in proportion to the increase of population, trade was no longer confined to the providing of mere necessaries, but profit was sought in, and became a motive to, the carrying it on. This motive, however, might occasionally have promoted both unity and good will among men, had the correspondence been conducted with that sincerity it ought; and by this means rendered productive of those reciprocal benefits and advantages, which naturally accrue from the supplying the wants of one country, with the superfluities of another. And, notwithstanding the accomplishment of this desirable object has been frustrated, by the degeneracy of mankind rendering ambition and avarice the motives to the continuance and extension of trade, more than want; yet these sinister designs have ultimately proved very beneficial to these latter ages. For, without such excitements, it is probable that the greatest part of the world would still have remained unknown to us. But instigated by the desire of gain, in order to support the one, and satisfy the other, men have made those numerous discoveries which lay hid for

ages; alike regardless of inconveniencies and of dangers, the pleasing prospect of attaining riches and preferments animated them to fresh engagements, and a succession of these, opened to us the wide field of trade that now lies before us. Whatever the motives were to the daring enterprizes of former ages, it must be confessed that we of this age are greatly indebted to the undertakers of them, for many of the comforts and conveniencies of life. And as the design of this sketch is to shew the advantages we receive from their labours, and to deduce the growth and progress of trade, from its earliest beginnings, the preceding considerations, it is apprehended, will not be regarded, either as useless or irrelevant. In the subsequent pages it is proposed concisely to exhibit the beneficial influence which trade has ever had, and still has, on human affairs, and that all nations have encreased in strength and power, or remain weak and abject, in proportion as they have encouraged or neglected commerce.

Whoever views the history of former ages, in the most cursory manner, will find, that the histories, even of the most warlike nations, will furnish him with as large accounts of their commerce as of their conquests; and that the narrative is equally extensive and full on the one subject as on the other.

If the greatest empires were established by valour and the force of arms, they were strengthened and supported, only, by the success, with which trade (in conjunction with the labour and industry of the people) furnished them, and the conquerors would soon have languished and perished with the conquered, had they not resorted to the riches which agriculture, manufactures, and commerce produce, in order to preserve and improve, by the tranquil arts of peace, the advantages acquired in the horrors and tumults of war.

It is by no means certain who were the first navigators in the world: the honour being claimed both for the Phenicians, and also for the Arabians. Nor, at this distance of time can this question be ascertained with any degree of precision. One fact at least is certain, that both those nations carried on commerce to a very considerable extent; while the rest of the world was

utterly ignorant of the advantages resulting from foreign trade and commerce.

Of the Commerce of the Tyrians.

On examing the commerce of the ancients, the Phenicians, and Tyre their capital are the first that present themselves; and these will sufficiently prove to what a height of glory, grandeur and riches, a nation is capable of attaining by the sole resources of commerce.

The Phenicians, it is remarked by M. Huet*, occupied only a narrow tract of land along the sea-coast; and Tyre itself was erected on an ungreatful barren soil, which, even in the most fruitful and productive seasons, was insufficient to support the great number of inhabitants, whom the first successes of trade had attracted thither.

Two advantages, however, indemnified this defect; they had excellent ports on the coast of their little state, particularly of their capital; and they were born with so happy a genius for trade, as generally to be associated with the Egyptians, in the honour done these latter, by supposing them the inventors of naval commerce, particularly that of long voyages.

The Phenicians knew so happily how to profit by these two advantages, that they soon became sole masters of the sea and of commerce. Lebanon, and the other neighbouring mountains, furnished them with excellent wood for the construction of their ships; and they had in a short time numerous fleets, which ran the hazards of unknown voyages to establish their trade; and as their people multiplied almost to infinity, by the great number of strangers, whom the desire of gain, and the certain prospect of acquiring wealth, drew to their city, they found themselves in a condition to send out many colonies, particularly that famous one of Carthage, which preserved the Phenicians spirit with respect

* Bishop of Avranches or Soissons, in his ingenious but desultory "Treaties on the Commerce of the Ancients"

to traffic, and was in no respect inferior to Tyre in point of trade, while it greatly surpassed the latter in the extent of its dominion.

The degree of glory and power to which Tyre had been raised by commerce and navigation rendered her so famous, that the report of prophane authors would hardly be believed destitute of exaggeration, had not the prophets themselves spoken of her with still greater magnificence; so that the description of her grandeur, of her forces, and the almost incredible number of her vessels, merchants, and merchandises, renders it impossible to pass unnoticed one of the most beautiful passages in the prophecy of Ezekiel, when we are speaking of the excellence of commerce, and the splendour it diffuses. Isaiah says, that Tyre is the common city of all nations, and the center of all commerce, and, in a word, is the queen of cities, of which the merchants are princes, and which has for traders the most illustrious persons of the earth. Such was the ancient Tyre when she fell under the arms of Nebuchadnezzar, after a siege of thirteen years. An asylum and resource, however, had providentially been secured by the inhabitants of this unfortunate city; for the Tyrians, during so long a siege, had both the precaution and time, to fortify a neighbouring island, where they established their maritime forces, and whither their merchants retired with their stores and merchandises, and continued a business so flourishing, that the taking and ruining of their first city, did not destroy either their empire of the sea or the reputation of their commerce.

It was this new city of Tyre, which, trusting in her riches and puissance, dared in after times to resist Alexander the Great, already master of one part of Asia, and threatened to interrupt, for some time, the course of his victories. Her temerity drew down upon her the utmost vengeance of the conqueror, by whom Tyre was entirely destroyed: and in order that no hopes might remain of being raised from her fall, he removed her marine and commerce to Alexandria, a new city, which he intended to make the capital of the empire of Asia, of which he then meditated the conquest.

Commerce of the Carthaginians.

In the mean time, the Tyrian colony of Carthage augmented its forces by trade, and thus put itself in a condition at once to dispute with Rome the empire of the world.

These new Africans soon repeated the benefits which the happy situations of their city offered, and profited by their native genius for trade and navigation. They made their fleets and merchants pass on one side to the ocean, beyond the pillars of Hercules, through the Straits of Gibraltar; and on the other, along the whole western coast of Europe; and if some accounts may be credited, their pilots and their merchants even had the boldness, or good fortune, to be the first that penetrated to unknown lands, of which the discovery, many ages afterwards, has done so much honour, and brought so much profit to the Spaniards.

Totally immersed in their commerce, the Carthaginians never thought (till too late) of valuing themselves on the immense riches which they had thus amassed for extending their dominion abroad; but their desire of throwing off their pacific merchant state, cost them dear. Their city, which trade had peopled with above seven hundred thousand inhabitants, was soon deserted, to furnish their armies with troops and recruits. Their fleets, accustomed solely to carry their merchants and merchandise, were now laden only with soldiers and warlike stores; and of their wisest and more fortunate traders were formed those chiefs and generals of armies, who were destined to make Rome tremble, and put Carthage in a condition to become the mistress of the world.

The great military achievements of the Carthaginians in Sicily Sardinia, Spain, and particularly in Italy, under the famous Hannibal, and also the disorder of their affairs by the victories of the two Scipios, are facts well known, and are of too little import to the matter now in discussion to require any detail of them. It may suffice, therefore, to add, that to so high a degree of riches and power had Carthage been raised by trade, that the Romans were engaged in a cruel and doubtful war of 50 years to

subdue this rival; and in fine, triumphant Rome believed she could not entirely subjugate and reduce her by any better means than by cutting off those resources which she might yet find in trade, and which, during so long a time, had supported her against all the forces of the republic.

It was, in effect, that resolution of the senate, which decided the fate of Carthage; and the Carthaginians themselves were so terrified, that having apprehended by this design, they should be obliged to give up their fleet, and to retire inland five leagues from the sea, they chose rather to expose themselves to the hazards of the third punic war, so fatal to them, than to renounce, so easily, the only hope that could remain to them in their misfortunes, and voluntary consent to see their commerce pass to Utica, whither they knew the Romans, to achieve their ruin, proposed to transfer it, as Alexander did that of Tyre, to the new city to which he had given his name, when he determined to punish the Tyrians for having dared to retard his conquests.

Commerce of the Arabians.

Although it is a question involved in considerable uncertainty whether the Arabians were the first inventors of navigation, and consequently of commerce; yet, from the peculiarly favourable situation of their country, it is highly probable they were among the first people who turned their attention to nautical pursuits. The extensive peninsula of Arabia is washed by the sea on three sides: and access to it on the fourth being rendered very difficult on account of the dangerous sandy deserts which bounded it, necessity seems to have compelled them to open communications by water with distant countries.

From the articles with which we know the Arabians supplied the Roman world, it is evident that they must have traded with India, and the principal islands (which the periodical winds denominated monsoons) might enable them to do without the aid of a compass, as some do even to this day): for gold, precious stones, rich stuffs, silks, &c. were the produce of ancient India, Arabia yielding only frankincense, balsam, myrrh, and the well known calamus aromaticus,

As the limits of this paper forbid the extension of the present article, we reluctantly refer the reader, who is desirous of further information on this subject, to Dr. Vincent's elaborate work "On the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients," 2 vols. 4to, 1807.

Commerce of the Egyptians.

Alexander lived too short a time to witness the happy and flourishing state to which commerce would elevate this last city. The Ptolomies, who after his death had Egypt for their part of his conquests, took care to support the infant trade of Alexandria, and soon brought it to such a degree of perfection and extent, as to bury in oblivion both Tyre and Carthage, which, during so long a time, had carried it on, almost alone, and had reassembled to them the commerce of all other nations.

This sudden success of the commerce of Alexandria, will cease to excite surprise, when we consider the felicity of its situation, which rendered it so commodious an emporium for all the merchandises both of the east and of the west.

On one side this famous city had a free commerce with Asia, and all the east, through the Red Sea: the same sea and the Nile, gave her entrance into the vast and rich countries of Ethiopia. The commerce of the rest of Africa and Europe, was open to her by the Mediterranean; and if she was disposed to carry on the interior commerce of Egypt, she had, in addition to the conveniency of the Nile, and the stupendous navigable canals made by the first Egyptians; she had, I say, the help of caravans, so convenient for the safety of merchants, and for the transportation of their commodities. Further, there was added a large and safe port, where foreign vessels arrived from all parts, and whence the Egyptian vessels were constantly conveying their merchants and commerce to all parts of the then known world.

It was this conveniency of depositing merchandise at Alexandria, that spread through all Egypt those immense riches, which rendered their kings sufficiently powerful to support

themselves, for more than an age, against the Romans, who endeavoured from time to time, to subdue so fine a kingdom: so considerable indeed were these riches, that historians affirm, that the product only of the customs of importation and exportation, upon the merchandises that passed the custom-houses of Alexandria, amounted annually to about 2,250,000l. sterling, (a vast sum in these days,) notwithstanding the major part of the Ptolomies levied but moderate imposts on their people.

Commerce of the Romans.

Previously to the battle of Actium, the Romans had always found, in the spoils of the nations they had subjected, resources from which they could fill the treasury of the Republic, and at the same time furnished a sufficiency for the expences, in which the plan of an universal monarchy continually engaged them. But when the resources began to fail them, the commerce of Egypt seemed well calculated to support by its riches, (and we may add by its credit) the reputation and empire of Rome.

From the time Augustus reduced this kingdom to a province, he earnestly endeavoured to make the trade of Alexandria more flourishing than ever; and at the same time he augmented that commerce, which the Egyptians had always maintained, or carried on in Arabia, the Indies, and to the most remote parts of the east, through the Channel offered by the Red Sea.

Under such auspices Alexandria became inferior only to Rome itself, in grandeur and in population. The magazines of the capital of the world, were no longer filled but with the merchandises which came to it from the capital of Egypt; and in a very short time not only Rome, but all Italy were indebted for their subsistence to the vast quantity of corn and other provisions, brought by the merchants and Egyptian fleets. So great were this quantity and abundance, that the historian, Josephus, affirms, that Alexandria yielded more riches to the Roman treasury in one month, than all Egypt in a year: although, if Pliny's calculation is to be credited, the profits of the Egyptian com-

merce amounted yearly for Rome, to 125,000,000 of crowns, (upwards of 28,000,000l. sterling), that is to say, a hundred times more than the Romans employed, whose ordinary expences did not amount to above 1,250,000 crowns.

This great trade, (which soon caused that of all the other provinces of the empire to flourish) augmented incessantly, and made the senate determine to maintain it by the corporations it established in Rome, for trade and traders, by the laws which it made in their favour, (or rather by those of the Rhodians, which it adopted, and which are long since become a species of the law of nations, for the navigation and commerce of the Mediterranean) by the magistracy whom it charged with their execution, and by the protection which it afforded to the merchants, as well strangers as Romans, in all the extent of the empire.

At length, Alexandria met with the fortune of Tyre and of Carthage. She had been raised by trade, and the fall of her trade overset her. The Saracens, who seized on Egypt, in the reign of Heraclius, having, by their cruelties, driven away the merchants, this city, which then held the first rank after Rome and Constantinople, hardly preserved any thing of her ancient splendour; and though she afterwards regained some vigour under the sultans, and has continued to flourish, in some degree, from the Christian nations, which carry on the Levant trade, and maintain a tolerable good business; it is, however, no longer possible to recognise that ancient Alexandria, so famous for her trade, and which was for so long a time the glory and support of an empire, founded indeed, by arms, but which received its principle strength from commerce.

Commerce of Gaul.

Before we notice the commerce of the moderns, it may be proper to annex a few particulars respecting those cities of ancient Gaul, which were formerly rendered famous by the enterprises of their merchants.

Massilia, or Marseilles, the most ancient ally of the Romans, was equally celebrated for its antiquity, for the wisdom and equity

of its senate, for the sciences taught in its academies, for the many colonies it established, and for the wars it gloriously maintained against so many different people, jealous of its riches; but for these advantages it was indebted only to its trade: and it was solely by means of commerce, that it arrived in so short a time, to that high point of respect and power, as to render it for a long time the arbitrator of the neighbouring nations, who were attracted thither to learn the arts and politeness of Greece, which its first inhabitants brought from Asia, when they left it, to settle among the Gauls.

The example of Marseilles soon animated the greatest part of the Gallic or French cities to trade, more especially such as were situated upon the same sea, or that were not far distant. Arles became famous for its experience in navigation, and for its ability in the art of building ships. It likewise distinguished itself for the invention of curious manufactures, and above all for its works in gold and silver, which gave it a great reputation. Narbonne even yet exceeded Arles, and so long as its port existed, it saw fleets arrive there from the East, Africa, Spain, and Sicily, laden with every kind of merchandise; while the inhabitants on their side, equipped their own ships to carry abroad the products of their country, or the manufactures which their own industry had raised.

When the alteration of the course of the River Aude, had occasioned its deserting the port of Narbonne, Montpellier arose upon the decline of the former: and the latter city now received in her own harbour ships from all parts of the Mediterranean.

Besides the cities here mentioned, there were several others which flourished in a considerable degree, from the influx of wealth occasioned by commerce, although they were considerably inferior. Among these, may be noticed Toulon, Frejus, &c. and particularly Aigue-Morte, before the sands of the Rhone had left it at a distance from the sea. From this last port it was, that the embarkations were made in the reign of St. Lewis for those romantic expeditions, the Crusades; which, by draining the different countries of their most turbulent subjects, and by promoting a more extensively mutual intercourse, did un-

questionably tend to promote civilization of manners as well as to improve commercial and nautical science.

In the interior of ancient Gaul, the principal emporium was Lyons; which being situated at the confluence of the Rhone and Saone, became a general staple or warehouse for all the various articles of the then French trade; exclusive of the commerce which she carried on with Egypt and the Levant by means of her correspondence with Arles and Marseilles.

At this period the ancient history of commerce properly terminates; in a future number we shall review its progress, during the middle ages, and thenceforward trace its course down to the present time. H.

(To be continued.)

II. *Historical Sketch of the Origin, Progress, and present State of the Commerce of Great Britain, including Particulars relating to the Nature, Produce, and Manufactures of each County.*

IN taking a retrospective view of the introduction of commerce into different European countries, the attentive reader cannot but notice that England has only begun to cultivate trade of late years, (comparatively speaking): yet, notwithstanding this disadvantage, our trade has increased, under circumstances apparently the most adverse, with an amazing rapidity, and to an extent unparalleled in the annals of authenticated history. It therefore becomes an interesting object, to invite the reader's attention to those particular circumstances, to which we are more immediately indebted for this signal prosperity.

The natural advantages enjoyed by an island, it has been judiciously observed by Dr. Kett ("Elements of General Knowledge," vol. 2,) are superior to those which belong to any country, which forms a part of a continent. The soil of the former is

commonly more rich, fertile, and various, than that of the latter. The sea affords the inhabitants security against the invasion of enemies, and furnishes them with inexhaustible supplies of provision. The fisheries on their coasts dispose islands to navigation, and hence they are led to establish an extensive intercourse with the most distant places. From their general propensity to maritime affairs, they acquire a spirit of enterprise, and distinguish themselves by their courage in the maintenance of their own customs and forms of government; and frequently gain a permanent ascendency over neighbouring and even remote states.

To these general advantages, which were possessed in ancient times by Crete, and at a less distant period by Rhodes, Great Britain adds some, which are peculiar to herself. Her line of sea-coast is very extensive in proportion to the size of the whole island, and abounds with deep bays and capacious harbours. Her ports are convenient, and good for anchorage. Those on the western side of the island are nearly as well situated for the southern trade, as the French; and they are far superior in number, safety, and depth of water. With respect to the northern and the Baltic trades, the situation of France before the last and present war, when it had not the command of the Coasts of Holland, admited of no comparison. Rivers and canals afford the convenience of water-carriage to the inland counties of England, and not only connect them with each other by the internal circulation of trade, but afford an easy and cheap conveyance to the ocean.

These various advantages have for successive ages been carefully improved, as the great works of public utility, completed in our sea-port towns, sufficiently attest. Harbours have been deepened, piers and moles have been erected to break the force of the waves, and form a safe asylum for ships. Wet and dry docks have been constructed for the building and reparation of ships, and commodious quays to unload their freights. In every place where necessity requires such aid, light-houses have been raised upon the lofty cliffs, to guide the mariner in the

darkest nights along the dangerous coasts. All these expensive and laborious works have been completed to promote navigation in every direction, as Liverpool, Bristol, Whitby, Yarmouth, Ramsgate, and Falmouth, fully prove; so that British vessels can sail from some port or other by every wind that blows; and the ships of foreign nations are invited, by such conveniencies, to bring their numerous articles of commerce to every part of our shores. As London takes the precedence in all works wherein grandeur is united to utility, so it is conspicuous for these improvements. The ground now occupied by the West India Docks was a few years ago a mere marsh. Here is now formed an immense harbour, and such lofty and spacious edifices are erected around it, that when the whole plan is completed, it will vie with some of the grandest efforts of ancient or modern times. Towns, ports, and aqueducts, have been erected by emperors and kings, but few of them can be compared with this commercial wonder: which has been in a short time effected by a body of English merchants. Such various monuments of utility prove the incessant energy of industry; and that in every instance, where the influence of government is propitious to the spirit of enterprises, those difficulties of nature and situation may be conquered, which past ages regarded as insurmountable.

In addition to all these various advantages, physical and acquired, we must not omit to notice the admirable state of the English roads, in general; by which every possible facility is offered, alike to expedite land carriage and to gratify the traveller.

For many centuries before our woollen manufactures had made any considerable progress, the raw or unmanufactured commodities, that were exported, were sufficient to obtain the few articles of foreign growth, which were then in request, and also to bring a yearly balance of cash, by which some other branches of foreign trade were carrried on to a small extent, and a beginning was made to the acquirement of commercial capital. The foreign trade of this country was however, in its infancy,

almost wholly in the hands of foreigners, who settled in London, and a few other ports, for the purpose of carrying on commerce with their respective countries; many of these merchants were Jews, whose profits must have been very considerable to induce them to submit to the impositions to which they were frequently exposed. By degrees some of the inhabitants of London, and and of the ports lying opposite to France and Flanders, began to build ships of their own, and to enter into competition with the alien merchants.

In the reign of Edward III. the exports of England consisted chiefly of wool, skins, hides, leather, butter, tin, and lead, of which wool was by far the most considerable, the quantity amounting to about 30,000 sacks of 26 stone each in a year. From a record in the Exchequer, it appears, that in 1354 the exports of England amounted to 294,184l. 17s. 3d. the imports to 38,970l. 3s. 6d. money of that time. This is a great balance, considering that it arose almost wholly from the exportation of wool and other raw materials, but it is not very probable that the excess of the exports was usually so great as in this particular year. It was not till the middle of this century that the English began to extend their commercial voyages to the Baltic; nor till the middle of the subsequent century that they sailed to the Mediterranean.

It is remarked by the original author of the article COMMERCE in the British Encyclopedia, to whom we are indebted for the following observation, that the improvement of the woollen manufacture greatly increased the value of the exports, as France had not then engaged in this manufacture, and Holland had not carried it to any considerable extent; so that England enjoyed almost a monopoly of that manufacture, for the supply of the north and west parts of Europe, before the year 1640; Spain and Portugal being then almost entirely supplied from this country with light draperies, as well for their home consumption, as for that of their extensive colonies, from whence, in return, we then receive sugar, tobacco, drugs, and other commodities with which we are now supplied by our own colonies.

In 1672 the Parliament repealed the duties payable by aliens on the exportation of the native commodities and manufactures of England, putting them in this respect on a level with English subjects. This salutary principle was further extended in 1700, by removing the duties on every kind of woollen goods, and on all kinds of corn, grain, and meal exported. Many subsequent events, as the establishment of the credit of the Bank, the union with Scotland, the consolidation of the two East India Companies, and the rapid improvement of the North American colonies, contributed materially to the advancement of the commerce of Great Britain; and Mr. Erasmus Phillips, in his "State of the Nation in respect to her commerce, &c." makes "the balance of England's trade, one year with another, to have been in our favour, on an average or medium, 2,881,357l. from 1702 to 1712." This appears to have been somewhat beyond the truth, but it is certain that foreign trade was then gradually increasing, and it was greatly promoted by an act passed in 1722, for extending the principle which had been adopted with respect to woollen goods, by permitting the exportation, duty free, of all merchandise, the produce of Great Britain, (except a few particular articles) and the importation, duty free, of the materials for dyeing, essential to several manufactures.

From this period, the encouragement given to fisheries in different parts, the increased cultivation of the West India islands, and the immense acquisitions of territory in the East Indies, have combined with the increasing wealth and population of Great Britain, to extend its commercial transactions in all directions, and greatly to augment their former magnitude. The great increase of the national expenditure has caused most articles of foreign produce to be burthened with a variety of heavy duties, and subjected commerce to numerous restrictions and impediments, yet under these disadvantages, it has of late years increased in an unparalleled degree, and in the year ending 5th January, 1807, produced a net revenue to government from the duties of customs amounting to 7,774,049l. 4s. 9d. This large contribution from foreign trade evinces its present magnitude; but its total amount, as well as that of its several branches, will

be more particularly shewn from the Custom-house accounts of the value of the commodities exported and imported. These accounts being formed according to rates established in the year 1696, which in most instances are greatly below the present value of the articles, certainly give an inadequate idea of the magnitude of the commerce of Great Britain; but this very circumstance renders them in a comparative view the more indisputable evidence of its increase.

Total official Value of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain, in the Year 1805.

	Imports.	Exports.
Denmark and Norway	£ 1,071,579	£ 5,172,066
Russia	2,527,078	1,646,475
Sweden	269,161	159,597
Poland	429,450	80,500
Prussia	1,790,781	5,520,072
Germany	319,444	2,180,784
Holland	726,264	418,801
Flanders	3,070	28,343
France	469,820	551
Portugal and Madeira	936,500	1,495,814
Spain and Canaries	916,165	111,380
Streights and Gibraltar	42,919	183,823
Italy	393,517	507,535
Malta	9,304	127,514
Turkey	103,590	135,410
Ireland	3,010,609	3,758,973
Isle of Man	21,697	62,431
Guernsey, Jersey, &c.	81,241	198,324
Greenland	261,086	952
Total of Europe	13,383,275	21,784,345
America and West Indies	9,615,161	12,163,917
Asia	6,079,160	1,638,600
New Holland	153	30,643
Africa	105,976	980,789
Sierra Leone	867	10,660
Total	£29,177,592	£36,608,954

The commerce of Great Britian with the countries surrounding the Baltic has always been deemed of much importance, as being the principal means of procuring the stores necessary for the maintenance of its navy. The capital employed in this branch of trade must be much greater than formerly, from the increased price of hemp, iron, masts, and timber of all kinds, pitch, tar, and the other articles of import. The returns from this country are British manufactures of various kinds, East India goods, and West India produce.

The trade with Germany experienced a great augmentation about the year 1794, when it became the channel through which Holland, France, and other parts of the Continent obtained the goods which, in times of peace, they had usually imported direct from Great Britain. The port of Hamburgh for a time possessed the principal share of the trade of Europe, but the unusual flow of business in this direction encouraged a spirit of adventure and speculation, which in 1799 produced great embarrassment, involving not only the merchants of Hamburgh, but also some of the most considerable houses in Bremen, Frankfort, Amsterdam, and London. The trade with Germany, however, continued of great importance, till the influence of France obliged them to break off their intercourse with this country.

The trade with Holland and Flanders, one of the most ancient branches of the commerce of this country, has not increased in proportion with the trade to other parts: it is, however, still considerable in time of peace. The total value of the exports to Holland in 1792 was 1,516,449l., in 1802 they amounted to 4,957,997l.

France enjoying great natural advantages, and having for a long time many colonial possessions, had not occasion to receive much merchandise from this country. The frequent hostilities between the two countries have likewise prevented the formation of permanent commercial connections, but some intercourse of this kind alway subsisted even in time of war, particularly with the ports of Calais, Bourdeaux, Havre, and Rouen, till the reign of Buonaparte, who resorted to a new mode of warfare, by pro-

hibiting all intercourse whatever with Great Britain, even through the intervention of neutral vessels.

The commerce with Spain and Portugal has not of late years been of great extent; the export to the latter country however, consisting almost wholly of British produce and manufactures, has generally been considered a valuable branch of foreign trade, and measures have been frequently adopted for its preservation. In 1801, when Portugal was threatened with invasion, the wines of that country were allowed to be imported and warehoused, on bond being given for payment of the duty when taken out for consumption. The removal of the government to the Brazils, and subjugation of the country by the French, must cause a great revolution in this branch of trade.

The Mediterranean trade suffered great interruption from the war which began in 1793; and in the war of 1803, it was reduced to little more than the supply of the islands of Sicily and Malta.

The exports to the coast of Africa must experience a considerable diminution, from the abolition of the slave trade, till a more reputable species of traffic is cultivated with the inhabitants of that extensive continent, who will be induced to furnish a greater quantity of their native commodities, in order to procure the cheap manufactures and luxuries to which they have been accustomed.

The East India trade has always been deemed very lucrative, but from the risks of such a distant voyage, the necessity of a large capital, and other circumstances, most of the states of Europe have deemed it expedient to vest this trade in the hands of an exclusive company. From about the year 1750 the mercantile concerns of the English East India Company have become blended with the revenues derived from the territorial possessions which they have acquired in India, and which have been augmented to an immense extent; as the net amount of these revenues, as well as the fortunes acquired by their officers and servants, are invested in merchandise, in order to be remitted to Great Britain. The imports of the Company have therefore increased very considerably, and in the year 1797, Mr. Irving, the inspector-general of imports

and exports, gave his opinion, that, including the private trade of individuals, carried on through the medium of the Company, and the proceeds of the territoral revenues, Great Britain derived an actual profit from the East India trade of about 2,300,000l. per annum. The principal articles imported from the East Indies are, from China, teas, nankeen cloths, and raw silk; from Bengal, piece goods of various kinds, raw silk, pepper, saltpetre, spices, drugs, sugar, coffee, &c. The total value of all the goods sold at the Company's sales, in the year ending 1st March, 1806, was 8,781,442l.

The West India trade, in the year 1787, employed about 130,000 tons of shipping; and in the year 1804, above 180,000 tons, navigated by 14,000 seamen. In 14 years, ending 1804, the value of the imports had increased nine millions sterling, and the revenue derived from them had increased about three and a half millions, including the conquered colonies; but exclusive of these, the imports from the West Indies were about a fourth of the whole imports of Great Britain. This branch of trade is however subject to great fluctuations, of which a remarkable instance has occurred since the year 1792. The destruction of St. Domingo, the most productive sugar colony in the world, gave a new aspect to British West Indian affairs. A yearly quantity of above 110,000 hogsheads being thus suddenly taken out of the market, the prices rose to an unusual height. The confusion which took place in Guadaloupe soon after, and the operations of the war in the West Indies, diminished the supply, and raised the price of produce still further. This of course became a great inducement to increase the cultivation of the British islands, and of those recently conquered, while about the same time, the introduction of the Bourbon cane enabled even the bad lands of the old islands to produce plentiful crops of sugar. From these causes the quantity of sugar has been constantly and rapidly increasing since 1792; the blank occasioned in that year has been filled up, and a great surplus has been added to the ordinary produce of former periods. The produce of the Spanish islands during the same period has increased rapidly. These circumstances caused a sudden decline

in the price of sugar, which became unusually low in 1807, and combined with the interruption of the export trade to the continent of Europe, reduced the West India merchants and planters to great difficulties.

The American war was regarded by many persons as involving, to a great measure, the ruin of the foreign commerce of Great Britain. Since the establishment of the independence of the American States, however, experience has proved that we derive a much greater benefit from that country than heretofore, as we now take from them no more than it is our interest to take, while from having but little capital, and much employment at home it must be many years before they can attempt to rival us in any considerable branch of foreign trade. The exports to America consist almost wholly of British manufactures, the official value of which in the year 1800 was 6,885,507l.; the imports are tobacco, rice, corn, and other unmanufactured produce. A very considerable trade is also carried on between the United States and the British West India islands, which is considered as almost essential to the support of the latter. The trade with the remaining British possessions in North America, is not of great extent; the principal branches of it are the fur trade of Canada, Hudson's Bay, and the Newfoundland fishery.

The total amount of the exports and imports sufficiently proves that the mercantile shipping of Great Britain must be greatly increased beyond what was employed in former periods. The total number of vessels that entered inwards and cleared out, with their tonnage, and the number of men and boys usually employed in navigating the same, as shewn in the following statement for three years ending the 5th of January, 1807, will furnish a correct idea of the extent of shipping employed in the commerce of Great Britian.

	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1804 -	14,779	2,002,686	113,723	15,224	2,051,135	124,255
1805 -	15,931	2,186,173	121,899	15,540	2,101,030	125,333
1806 -	15,911	2,095,568	120,342	15,710	2,054,472	124,189

By the act imposing a duty on all sea assurances, as well as by the act for establishing the convoy duty, the extent and value of the foreign trade of this country has been more clearly ascertained than heretofore, and it appears that the capital employed in commerce cannot be less than 80,000,000l. The annual profit derived from it has been variously estimated, but according to the best authority, it appeared in the year 1797 to be about 10,500,000l. per annum.

Here our limits require this article to terminate; yet before we dismiss the subject, for the present, the writer of these hints may perhaps be permitted to hazard a remark on the extensively beneficial consequences that have resulted from commerce. Not only then has it promoted useful arts and science, but it has also civilized society, has contributed to soften the rigours of despotic government, and has, in the hands of Divine Providence, been instrumental in diffusing the blessings of pure and undefiled religion among nations and people; who otherwise must have continued in that deplorable state of moral blindness and ignorance, which have so long veiled the mental eye of by far the greater part of the rational world.

III. *Accounts of the principal Chartered and Trading Companies, established in Great Britain.*

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

A Company, in commerce, is defined to be "an association, formed for carrying on some branch of trade which requires a greater capital than private traders can usually command, or which is liable to engagements to which individual responsibility is deemed inadequate." In the infancy of commerce, almost every branch of foreign trade was carried on by a particular company, which generally possessed exclusive privileges; and such institutions were then necessary and beneficial; but in

modern times, when individuals have accumulated large capitals, and the improvement of navigation facilitated commercial intercourse with all parts of the world, and the general practice of insurance reduced the risk of foreign voyages to a regular addition to the cost of commodities, there are very few branches of foreign trade which cannot be more advantageously carried on by individuals, or private co-partnerships, than by public companies.

When companies do not trade upon a common stock, but are obliged to admit any person properly qualified upon paying a certain fine, and agreeing to submit to the regulations of the company, each member trading upon his own stock, and at his own risk, they are called regulated companies. When they trade upon a joint stock, each member sharing in the common profit or loss in proportion to his share in this stock, they are called joint-stock companies. The regulated companies for foreign trade, which at present subsist in Great Britain, are the African Company, the Turkey or Levant Company, the Russian Company, and the Eastland Company; they have, however, little more than a nominal existence, as any person may freely trade to these parts without being a member of any company, on paying a very small additional duty*. The principal joint-stock companies for foreign trade, are the East India Company, and the Hudson's Bay Company: the South Sea Company has long given up its commercial undertakings, and the Sierra Leone Company has not yet acquired much importance. There is, however, a multitude of joint-stock companies established, some with exclusive privileges, but in general without any such advantage, for carrying on the banking business, for the different kinds of insurance, for granting and purchasing annuities, for making docks, navigable canals, tunnels, roads, or rail-ways, and for working mines.

The utility of joint-stock companies for many of those purposes, and the success which some of them have experienced

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* See Smith's Wealth of Nations, Vol. 3. p. 110.

has frequently produced a disposition for the multiplication of such establishments, and an opinion that they might be extended to almost every branch of trade and manufactures. The rage for forming public companies was, in 1720, carried to a degree of infatuation, which led thousands to subscribe to projects the most useless or impracticable, and gave rise to such a spirit of speculation and stock-jobbing, as rendered necessary the interference of parliament. In consequence of the act then passed, 6 Geo. I. c. 18, upwards of two hundred projected companies ended in the loss and disappointment of their respective subscribers. The recollection of this circumstance prevented for many years any similar attempts, till the frequency of subscriptions for making canals showed the facility of raising large sums in this manner, for any public undertakings, and led to the formation of joint-stock companies to other purposes. In the course of the year 1807, proposals were circulated for establishing six new insurance companies; seven subscription breweries; four public distilleries; five genuine wine companies; two vinegar manufactories; a corn, flour, and provision company; a united public dairy; a new medical laboratory for the sale of genuine medicines; three coal companies; a cloathing company; a linen company; a united woollen company; a paper company; two or three copper companies; a national light and heat company; two new banks; two commision sale companies; and a company for purchasing canal shares, and lending money for completing canals. On the Attorney General proceeding against one or two of these intended companies, most of the others were abandoned.

It must be admitted that the privileges granted to chartered companies by Government have undoubtedly encouraged a spirit of monopoly, and been too favourable to the exclusive interests of a few merchants, at the expence of the public at large. By the charter of the East India Company, the rest of the nation are excluded from trading beyond the Cape of Good Hope; and, by the charter of the Turkey Company, they are prohibited from having any commerce with the dominions of the Grand Seignior. Thus the interests of the whole are sacrificed to

the emolument of a few. A small number of merchants confine their exports and imports to as small a quantity as they please. The natural consequence is, that they confine the markets to themselves, and they can both buy and sell at their own price. As charters confer exclusive privileges, they operate as a check upon all those who come not within their limits, and in their nature produce an established monopoly. They are therefore inconsistent with a received maxim, which suggests the expediency of a competition to render trade advantageous to the public.

"All restrictions on trade are naught: and no company whatever, whether they trade in a joint stock, or under regulations, can be for public good, except it may be easy for all, or any of his Majesty's subjects, to be admitted into them, at any time, for a very inconsiderable fine*."

Still, however, it must be acknowledged, as a vindication of those, who have instituted the present system of commerce, that they were obliged to adapt their measures to the circumstances of peculiar times, and to assimilate their plans to those of other nations, in order to secure equal advantages. No individual merchant was bold enough to embark his whole property in the adventurous issue of a distant trade; whereas numbers were inclined to associate for that purpose, because the particular sums, which formed the joint stock, were not so large as to injure materially any of the individuals concerned, if the enterprize should have been unsuccessful. Government gave them a charter as a recompence for their risk; and, regarding only their immediate benefit, looked not forward to a time, when the mercantile spirit would be more widely diffused, and British subjects would complain, that any other limits, except those of nature, were set to their exertions.

But it seems at present to be admitted as a settled principle, that commercial companies are injurious, rather than beneficial to the public, as they trade at much more expence than indivi-

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* Sir J. Child.—This principle is adopted by Smith, and very fully treated in his Wealth of Nations, vol. i. p. 201. vol. iii. p. 110.

duals, and give rise to illegal traffic, which is proved by the number of neutral vessels that carry English goods to foreign ports. The Americans are sensible of these inconveniences. They have no chartered companies, and yet they can carry on a lucrative trade to the East Indies and to China, and all other parts of the world.

Origin and Progress of Banks in general.

BANK, in commercial language, is the name usually given to those repositories or establishments, which receive the money of private individuals, either to keep it in security, or to improve it at interest until the owner has occasion again to draw it out.

Banks are usually formed by a number of opulent monied persons, who, in order to carry on the business of exchanging or dealing in money, bullion, or bills, deposit a considerable sum by way of capital, which forms a security to those who entrust them with the care of keeping their money. The vast facilities which the establishment of such institutions afford to commercial transactions, has caused them to be formed in almost every principal city of Europe. Thus, the bank of Venice was established about the year 1157; that of Genoa, about 1345, (though it is by some thought to be prior to the bank of Venice; the Amsterdam Bank, in 1609; that of Hamburgh, in 1619; that of Rotterdam, in 1635; the BANK OF ENGLAND, in 1694; the Bank of Scotland in the following year; the Bank of France, in 1716; the Royal Bank of Scotland, in 1727; and the Bank of Ireland, in 1781.

Historical Sketch of the Bank of England.

Of these various banks, the most extensive in point of circulation and of opulence in Europe, perhaps in the world, is the Bank of England. It was projected by Mr. W. Paterson, a merchant; who, in conjunction with Mr. Michael Godfrey, and some others, arranged the establishment, for which, with consi-

derable difficulty on the part of the privy council, (William III. being at that time in Flanders), the sanction of parliament was at length obtained. The charter, which was dated July 27, 1694, was granted for the term of 12 years, the corporation being then determinable on a year's notice. The original capital subscribed was, one million two hundred thousand pounds; which was advanced to government at eight per cent. interest, which yielded an annuity of 96,000l. per annum, and with an allowance of 4,000l. a year for the expences of management. The credit of the new government, established by the revolution, Dr. Adam Smith remarks, must have been very low indeed, to have been reduced to the necessity of borrowing at so high an interest.

In 1697, the Bank was allowed to enlarge its capital stock by an ingraftment of 1,001,171l. 10s. Its whole capital stock, therefore, amounted at this time 2,201,171l. 10s. This ingraftment is said to have been for the support of public credit. In 1696, tallies had been at forty, and fifty, and sixty per cent. discount, and bank notes at twenty per cent. During the great recoinage of the silver, which was going on at this time, the Bank had thought proper to discontinue the payment of its notes, which necessarily occasioned their discredit.

In pursuance of the 7th Anne, c. vii. the Bank advanced and paid into the exchequer, the sum of 40,000l. making in all the sum of 1,600,000l. which it had advanced upon its original annuity of 96,000l. interest, and 4000l. for expence of management. In 1708, therefore, the credit of government was as good as that of private persons, since it could borrow at six per cent. interest, the common legal and market rate of those times. In pursuance of the same act, the Bank cancelled exchequer bills to the amount of 1,775,027l. 17s. 10½d. at six per cent. interest, and was at the same time allowed to take in subscriptions for doubling its capital. In 1708, therefore, the capital of the Bank amounted to 4,402,343l.; and it had advanced to government the sum of 3,375,027l. 17s. 10½d.

By a call of fifteen per cent. in 1709. there was paid in and

made stock 656,204l. 1s. 9d.; and by another of ten per cent. in 1710, 501,448l. 12s. 11d. In consequence of those two calls, therefore, the Bank capital amounted to 5,559,995l. 14s. 8d.

In pursuance of the 3d George I. c. 8. the Bank delivered up two millions of exchequer bills to be cancelled. It had, at this time, therefore, advanced to government 5,375,027l. 17s. 10d. In pursuance of the 8th George I. c. 21. the Bank purchased of the South Sea Company, stock to the amount of 4,000,000l.: and in 1722, in consequence of the subscriptions which it had taken in for enabling it to make this purchase, its capital stock was increased by 3,400,000l. At this time, therefore, the bank had advanced to the public 9,375,027l. 17s. 10½d.; and its capital stock amounted only to 8,959,995l. 14s. 8d. It was upon this occasion that the sum which the Bank had advanced to the public, and for which it received interest, began first to exceed its capital stock, or the sum for which it paid a dividend to the proprietors of bank stock; or, in other words, that the Bank began to have an undivided capital, over and above its divided one. It has continued to have an undivided capital of the same kind ever since. In 1746, the Bank had, upon different occasions, advanced to the public 11,686,800l. and its divided capital had been raised by different calls and subscriptions to 10,780,000l. The state of those two sums has continued to be the same ever since.

(To be Continued).

IV. *New Channels for British Commerce.*

THE BRASILS.

THE astonishing events, which have recently taken place in the southern part of Europe, have given to the Brasils an interest, in a commercial point of view; which, it is apprehended will fully justify the preference given to that country, under this

division of our work. The annexed sketch, will therefore exhibit a concise view of the geography of Portuguese America, and the relative advantages it affords for commercial intercourse.

The Portuguese territory of Brasil, in South America, is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by a chain of mountains that separate it from Paraguay; on the north by the mouth of the river Amazon which divides it from Terra Firma, and by part of the Atlantic Ocean; and on the south by the mouth of the river La Plata.

This country is situated between the Equator and 35 degrees of south latitude; and is about 2,700 miles in length by 700 in breadth, though some geographers compute it to be only 470 leagues or 1410 miles in length. It was first discovered by Americo Vespucci in the year 1498; but the Portuguese did not occupy it till fifty years afterwards, viz. in 1549, when they settled at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. The Spanish court, conceiving from a prior discovery of another part of South America that the whole of that continent belonged exclusively to them, at first interrupted the Portuguese in their new settlement: but the affair was at length compromised by treaty, in which it was conceded, that the Portuguese should possess all the countries lying between the two great rivers, Amazon and La Plata, of which tract they now retain the possession. The French, (we avail ourselves of Mr. Blagdon's interesting description of this part of the Globe) also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decided the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian, the King of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, shortly after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, being flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards

into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former master. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships, or provinces, and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1645, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tuns of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country, which was accepted; and the Portuguese remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress, called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

Brasil is divided into 16 provinces, of which the following are the principal:—Northern, Rio Grande, Rirarba, Parnambuco; Middle, Bahia, Spiritu Santo; Southern, Rio Janeiro, and Del Rey.

The Atlantic ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3,000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours: as the harbours of Parnambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

The name of Brazil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. Towards the north of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September.

But to the south, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there are no parts of the world which enjoy a more serene and wholesome air. The land near the coast is in general rather low but exceedingly pleasant, and being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are lofty mountains, whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others run across the country from east to west, till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar-mills, belonging to the Portuguese. The soil in general is extremely fertile.

The whole country abounds with timber trees, besides which there are spacious woods of citron, ebony, mastic-cotton, and five different species of palm trees, together with many other vegetable productions that yield the finest fruit, and most admirable balsams, that diffuse the most delightful fragrance. But the principal vegetable production is the valuable timber tree, called Brasil-wood, (from which indeed the whole country has derived its appellation) and which constitutes a chief article of export to Europe.

Brasil-wood has different names, according to the places whence it is exported. Thus there is the Brasil wood of Fernambuco, or Pernambuco, the Brasil wood of Japan, that of Lamon, that of Santa Martha, and lastly the Brasillet, which is esteemed the worst. This last comes from the Antilles islands.

The Brasil wood of Japan is otherwise called Sapan: and is of two sorts, the large and the small one: the large is simply called Sapan, and the small Sapan bimaës.

The tree of the Brazil wood grows commonly in dry barren places, among rocks. It becomes very thick and tall, and shoots out long branches, whose twigs are furnished with a vast quantity of small leaves, half round, of a fine bright green, pretty much like those of box, but longer, hard, dry, and brittle. It's trunk is seldom straight, but crooked and knotty, similar to that of the hawthorn. Twice a year, at the extremity of the branches, and between the leaves, small bunches of flowers appear, which are somewhat long, pretty much like those of the

lily of the valley, of a bright red, and an agreeable aromatic smell; these are succeeded by a flat red fruit, which contains two small flat seeds, of a most lively red, and in form resembling a pumpkin seed.

Though the trunk of this tree be very thick, yet it is covered with so gross a bark, that, when the savages have taken it off from the wood, a trunk, which before was as thick as a man's body, remains, as it were, a log not bigger than his leg.

The Brasil wood is very heavy, dry, and hard; it crackles very much in the fire, and emits hardly any smoke, on account of its excessive dryness.

None of the different sorts of Brasil woods have any pith, except that of Japan: that of Fernambuco is reckoned the best. It must be chosen in thick pieces or logs, heavy, compact, very sound, without any part of inner bark upon it, and without the least rottenness, and such, as after splitting it, from pale becomes reddish; and that, being chewed, it has a sweetish taste, like sugar.

This wood is proper for turners work, and takes a good polish: but it's chief use is for dyeing, as it imparts a red colour.

From the Brasil wood of Pernambuco, they extract, by means of acids, a kind of carmine: they also make of it a liquid lac for painting in miniature. And, with a tincture of this wood often repeated, is prepared a reddish chalk, called rosetta; which, however, is nothing but the white of Roan, to which the Brasil wood gives the colour of an amaranthus. Brasil wood is also used medicinally both as a stomachic and as an astringent.

There are numerous gold and silver mines in Brasil, which are of great extent. There are also many diamond mines, but the diamonds are not so brilliant as those of Hindostan, being of a brownish obscure hue. The mines commence about sixty miles from Rio, of which the large and populous capital is called Minas:—this province extends to the Spanish settlements of Paraguay.

The king's tenth of the gold is taken from the ore at the smelt-

ing-house, where it is cast into ingots, which are stamped, and then become a legal tender in payments; if the owner wish to have it coined, it pays two and a half per cent. at the mint. The colonial gold currency is in pieces of four millreas, or 25 shillings sterling; these are greatly alloyed, to prevent their exportation from the colony. Most of the gold sent to Portugal is coined into half joes (2*l.*); and the exportation of uncoined gold is forbidden upon pain of transportation for life to the coast of Guinea.

The population of this large portion of South America has not been accurately detailed; but it cannot exceed one million. According, however, to Sir George Staunton, at the time of his voyage, the total did not exceed 800,000 souls. The diamond mines are the exclusive property of the crown: and one-fifth of the gold is exacted. There are also numerous taxes and impositions, which instead of enlarging the revenue are the grand causes of its diminution; and the expences of government consume about one-third of the million sterling, which Brasil is supposed to yield to Portugal.

The Portuguese army in Brasil is said to amount to about 8000 regulars, and 20,000 militia.

The inhabitants of this country are very numerous, and consist of Portuguese, Negroes, Indians, and original natives. The portrait given of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in Brasil, by the most judicious travellers, is the reverse of favourable. They are described as a people, sunk in the most effeminate luxury, and practising the most desperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel; penurious in their diet; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society or a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. —When they appear abroad, Mr. Blagdon continues, they are carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo about 12 or 14 feet long. Most of these hammocks

are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains, so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down, or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and even hold long conferences in them in the streets; in which case the two slaves who carry them make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their masters business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

The Brasilian women, in the opinion of Lieut. Tuckey, of the Calcutta, who was there in 1803, can seldom claim the epithet of pretty, though he observes, that their black eyes, large, full, and sparkling, give a degree of brilliancy, to their dark complexions, and throw some expression into their countenances; but it is too generally the mere expression of animal vivacity, untempered by the soft chastising power of tender sensibility. Their eye-brows are finely arched; their eye-lashes long and silken; their hair is long, black, and coarsely luxuriant; and, if we may judge from the frequent application of the fingers, is not always without inhabitants. In their persons, they are unacquainted with that delicate *propreté*, from which our countrywomen derive so large a portion of their power over the other sex, and for which they are conspicuous over all the nations of Europe. Among other habits of the Brasilian ladies, which, separately considered, are perhaps trifling, but when combined, form a powerful opposition to the empire of female charms, is that of continually spitting, without regard either to manner, time, or place.

The Brasilians of both sexes excel in music and singing, and the ladies are greatly attached to dancing, which they perform

with much grace: they prefer English country dances, though they often perform the indecent native dance of the Indians.

The European settlers are in general gay and fond of pleasure; yet, extremely observant of the ceremonies of religion, and constantly adore the Virgin Mary, who is stuck up in a glass case at every corner. Cloaks and swords are generally worn by the men. The convents and monasteries are numerous, and the manufactories rare. Labour is chiefly performed by slaves, about 20,000 negroes being annually imported, at the price of about 28l. each, and even the monks and clergy keep black slaves.

Mr. Lindley, who was at Brasil in 1804, expresses himself to have been shocked with the indelicacy of the ladies, who amuse themselves with hunting vermin among each others hair, and shew, with great coolness, a certain cutaneous disorder on their hands. The inhabitants of Bahia generally follow the Lisbon fashions, but with an excess of embroidery.

Trade.

The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brasil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides,* and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufac-

* The country abounds with vast herds of wild animals, the hides and tallow of which afford at this time a very valuable article of commerce.

tures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the commercial powers of Europe.

Of the chief commodities which European ships carry thither in return, not a fiftieth part is the produce of Portugal; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linen and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils made of these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese; oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present more interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and what they want for the use of the Brasils.

Their exports of sugar within 50 years is grown much greater than it was; though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the United States.

The Portuguese had been in possession of Brasil a long time before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds which have since made it so considerable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of 100 sail of large ships, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the Spanish flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near 4,000,000l. sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

The city of San Salvador, or, as it is now commonly called, Bahia, on the eastern side of the entrance of the grand bay of Todos Santos, was long the most commercial, and may still be regarded as the capital city of Portuguese America, though the mines in the south have conferred new importance on Rio Janeiro. It is founded on a rocky and unequal situation, often 600 feet above the sea, and mostly impracticable for carriages, whence the chief

people go in palanquins carried by two negroes on their shoulders. This strong situation is also well fortified, but the garrison and artillery are often inadequate. The imports are chiefly linen, woollens, silk, hats, wheat, rice, flour, port wine, furniture, negroes, oil, cheese, &c. in return for gold sugar, tobacco, Brasil wood, skins, balsam of Copaiba, ipecacuanha, and other drugs. The mob possess much pride, but the other classes are courteous; and the women used to live more retired than in Portugal, seldom going out except to hear mass on Sundays and festivals. There are about 2000 houses mostly of stone. Some planters have 500 slaves, who are so much worked and so ill fed, that if they survive seven years, it is esteemed a miracle. The cathedral is of tolerable architecture, and most richly decorated. From a platform in front, there is a beautiful view of the superb bay, with its islands and lively commerce. San Salvador is an archiepiscopal see. The Portuguese government is jealous of the commerce, and does not permit the intrusion of strangers. The inhabitants of Bahia have been computed, by Mr. Lindley, at 100,000, including the suburbs, 30,000 being whites. Notwithstanding the irregular and inconvenient situation, St. Salvador is one of the richest trading cities in this country, and we may add, that it contributes much to the strength of it, so that with a small expence it might be made impregnable, nature having formed ditches and out-works flanking one another in such a manner that the ground might be disputed inch by inch. The east side of St. Salvador is almost inaccessible; the rest are all well fortified both by art and nature, and the avenues guarded by several forts, particularly that of St. Peter, which is a regular tetragon of earth faced with stone, surrounded with a ditch; of St. Diego or James, much of the same form and materials, but without ditches; Cesa de la Pulvera, or powder magazine, another strong tetragon, containing eight distinct magazines, vaulted and covered pyramidically; the fort of St. Anthony, of the same form, but larger, and situated on the north side exactly over the watering-place, and commanding the road on the other; that of Nuestra Segnora de Victoria, situated about half a cannon

shot from the last, that of St. Bartholomew, which defends a little harbour, where ships may careen: and lastly that of Montserrat, besides those which command the entrance; so that, upon the whole, there seems little else wanting to render it inaccessible to the enemy, but keeping those fortifications in better repair, rebuilding some others gone to ruin, and furnishing those forts with better cannon, and greater supplies of ammunition, than are commonly found in them. Both town and forts are garrisoned by regular forces maintained by the king of Portugal, all well armed, disciplined, clothed, and paid.

Rio de Janeiro, in the province of that name, and called also Sebastian, is now deemed the principal city of Brasil; and the following description of it, as extracted from Sir G. Staunton's Journal, is the most modern and authentic.

The harbour of Rio de Janeiro is capacious, and convenient for commerce. Its shores abound with villages and plantations, terminated by an amphitheatre of mountains, whose summits are covered with trees. The city is situated four miles to the westward of the harbour, in the middle of which is the palace of the viceroy. A Benedictine convent, and a fort, are on the extreme point jutting into the harbour, opposite to which is the Ilheo dos Cobras, or Serpent Island.—Upon this island are a dock-yard, magazines, and naval storehouses; and, around its shores, convenient anchorages for shipping. Rio has lately undergone considerable improvements. In many parts the houses are built of hewn stone. The streets are straight, and well paved; and similar artisans reside in the same street. An aqueduct, of considerable length, brought over vallies by a double row of arches placed one above the other, supplies the fountains situated in the squares, with water. A guard constantly attends the fountains to regulate its distribution; and a sufficient quantity of it is thence conveyed to the quay, through canvas pipes, for the uses of the shipping.

The shops, magazines, and markets, fully evince the opulence and commercial importance of the place; they all abound with every species of British manufacture, and the appearance of in-

dividuals indicates ease and comfort. The city has several public walks; and buildings, both public and private, were increasing. There are many capital edifices built of granite, with which material a spacious quay has been constructed on the beach, opposite to the palace. From local circumstances and the decisive influence of the climate, the town is insalubrious. It is situated upon a plain, and, except from the harbour, surrounded with hills, covered with thick forest trees. The air, thus confined, is rendered humid in mornings and evenings. From this cause, as well as from stagnant water in marshes near the town, arise putrid and intermittent fevers; and the elephantiasis is not uncommon. There are three convents for men, and two for women; none of them remarkable for religious austerity. The ceremonies of religion, however, are strictly observed; and an addition had been made to them, by the ringing of bells, and launching of sky-rockets, whenever any solemnities were performing in the churches.

Plays, operas, and masquerades, constitute the amusements of both sexes. A public garden, Mr. Lindley continues, at one extremity of the town, by the sea-side, is the favourite attraction; where, after their evening promenade, they frequently partake of banquets, rendered more pleasant, by the accompaniment of music, and the display of artificial fireworks. This garden is laid out with much taste, in grass-plots, shrubberies, and parterres, interspersed with shady trees, and arched alcoves, decorated with flowers, jessamines, and fragrant plants. Towards the middle is a fountain of artificial rock-work, ornamented with sculptured figures of two aligators, spouting water into a marble reservoir, in which aquatic birds, done in bronze, are sportively represented. Contiguous to the sea-shore, and near to the town, is a garden, curious for a small manufacture of cochineal, which is performed by a simple, though cruel process. The insects are put into a flat earthen dish, placed, alive, over a charcoal fire, and par-roasted, very slowly, till the down upon them disappears, and the aqueous juice of the animal is entirely evaporated. But, during this process, they are to be

constantly stirred about with a tin ladle, to prevent absolute torrefaction, which would reduce the insect to ashes, and thereby destroy the colour.

At Val Longo, in another part of the harbour, are warehouses for the reception and sale of slaves from Angola and Benguela, on the coast of Africa. Out of 20,000, purchased annually for the Brasils, Rio took 5000, of which the average price was 20l. sterling each. The Queen of Portugal receives 60,000l. per annum, into her privy purse, by a duty of 10,000 rees on each slave, paid before they are shipped from Africa.

The original inhabitants of Brasil are low in stature, muscular, stout, and active; of a light brown complexion, straight black hair, little beard, long dark eyes, but with tokens of intellect. They entertain an implacable antipathy to the invaders of their country; they shun the settlements of the Portuguese, but massacre individuals, without remorse, wherever they are found scattered or unprotected.

By a late prohibition the people at Rio were prevented from working upon the gold, even in their own mines; and the tools used by the artificers were seized and confiscated. The people complained heavily of taxes; they were so severely felt by those in the interior provinces, that, by carriage and transit duties, a bottle of port wine cost the consumer 10s. sterling. In consequence of these, and other hardships, a conspiracy was formed a few years since against the parent country, in which were concerned clergy as well as laity, and some of the principal officers of the government there. Their views, however, were discovered and prevented. Only the chief conspirator received capital punishment; the rest were banished to the African settlements.

Rio is protected by several small forts and batteries, so detached as to impede the progress of an enemy. Its military establishment consists, including two battalions of disciplined militia, of 10,000 men; exclusive of a numerous undisciplined militia, mostly in the city and its vicinity. But the subordination of the officers themselves to the viceroy, is enforced with cir-

cumstances equally mortifying, for they are obliged to attend in his hall three times every day to ask his commands.

The churches are very fine; and there is more religious parade in this place than in any of the popish countries of Europe. There is a procession in some parish or other every day, with various insignia, all splendid and costly in the highest degree. They beg money, and say prayers in great form, at the corner of every street.

Rio de Janeiro is a very good place for ships to put in for refreshment. The harbour is safe and commodious, and provisions, except wheaten bread and flour, may easily be procured. As a succedaneum for bread, there are yams and cassava in plenty. Beef, both fresh and jerked, may be bought at twopence farthing a pound, though it is very lean.

Pernambuco, or Fernambuco, chief town of the province to which it gives name, is a very considerable place. It is also called Rerief, or Arraise, from a neighbouring harbour of that name, which is now the strongest in all Brasil, a number of forts being erected all round, and the access naturally so intricate and dangerous, that the assistance of a skilful pilot is absolutely necessary to avoid them. To this may be added several other towns in Brasil, some of which are considerable; as Olinda, in the province of Fernambuco; Paraiba, St. Vincent, Tamora, or Tamarica, and Sierra, in the provinces so named; Belem, or Para, in the province of Paria; and Maragnano, in an island and captainry of that name, towards the northern extremity of Brasil.

About 30 miles north of the province of St. Vincent, which is the most southerly of Brasil, lies the little republic of St. Paul, surrounded by lofty mountains and thick forests. This state was originally composed of outlaws from all the neighbouring colonies, Spaniards, Portuguese, Creoles, Mestizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, who took refuge on this spot, and lived at first without order, society, faith, honour, or religion; preying upon each other, and subsisting by mutual rapine, and the plunder of their neighbours; but the inconveniences attending this way of life, and the danger to which it exposes them, soon drove them

into confederacies, and these, at last, produced a regular democracy. If they were more numerous, they would be formidable to the Portuguese colonies; but, as they are not reputed above 4 or 5000, and want fire-arms, they give no apprehensions, and, consequently, no attempts are made to reduce them to subjection.

At present, this community claims entire independence; though they pay an annual tribute to the king out of their gold mines, the amount of which we have already stated, rather to preserve commercial benefits, than to acknowledge his sovereignty. It was the tyranny of the Brasil government that gave birth to this little state, which is at length grown so jealous of its liberty, that no stranger is suffered to set foot within its dominions, outlaws and runaway slaves excepted.

Formerly the government of this country was administered by a viceroy, (who was generally a needy relation of the Portuguese court), the Governor of the chief town and a council; which, while it had the appearance of being mixed, was in fact very despotic. Without the consent of this council, in which the viceroy had a casting vote, no judicial act could be performed: although it was not an infrequent practice of the viceroys and governors to commit persons at their own pleasure: and sometimes the hapless individuals were even sent to Europe, without any notice being communicated to their families or friends of the crimes laid to their charge, or any intelligence being given where they might be found.

But these inconveniences, it is to be expected will be obviated, or remedied, now that the legitimate sovereign of Portugal has arrived in the Brasils, and has decidedly fixed his seat of government in that country. This event took place in January last: and it is understood that a new commercial treaty is on foot between the British and Portuguese governments, the result of which will doubtless operate to our mutual benefit.

V. OBJECTS OF TRADE.

Natural History of British Wool, with Hints for its Improvement.

Wool has ever been the most pre-eminent of our Staple Productions; it formed a principal object of commerce in the earliest ages of authentic British History, and in after ages attracted considerable notice from different Sovereigns. But it was not until the reign of Edward III. whose wise provisions have justly procured for him the appellation of the *English Justinian,* that a total prohibition *to the exportation of British Wool* was issued, and cloth-workers or manufacturers were invited to England from the Netherlands, and encouraged to settle here, by the peculiar privileges granted to them. Indeed, previously to this period, (the celebrated Pensionary De Witt has remarked) and before the tumults and wars, which had desolated Flanders, had removed the weaving trade to this country, the Netherlands could trade with ample profit, with us; the English being only *shepherds* and wool merchants; and as the sovereigns received but few imports except those which arose from the exportation of wool, a mutual and absolutely necessary dependence arose between them and the Netherlands; whose inhabitants were at that time almost the only weavers in Europe. But it must not be supposed, that the manufacture of cloths was first actually introduced into this country by the fugitive inhabitants of Brabant and the Netherlands. By no means.—"The fabrication of woollens," says Mr. Luccock, an intelligent wool-stapler, (in his valuable treatise on wool) was introduced into Britain by the Romans, who not only taught their rude subjects the art of weaving, but succeeded so far as to induce them to exchange the skins in which they had hitherto been clothed, for the more comfortable attire of their conquerors. They established a manufacture at Winchester, so extensive as to support the Roman army; and it cannot be supposed, although history be silent-

upon the subject, that it should either be confined entirely to that city, or easily abandoned by that people, so long as they had possession of the country. It is more probable that as the other arts, which are immediately connected with the comforts of society, advanced through that whole period, so the knowledge of spinning and weaving would be more widely diffused and generally practised. Perhaps the employment of the loom was not always separated from that of the field. He who sometimes directed the shuttle, at others guided the plough, or handled the flail; and the old Britons, in this respect, resembled the inhabitants of the continent. If the manufacture subsisted under the patronage of the Romans about the space of four hundred years, it is not at all probable that it should be neglected by the natives after that their friends had left them. Nor is there, that I know of, the most distant hint in the records of history to support such a conjecture. Indeed the silence of historians upon this point, if it prove any thing, shows that the practice of converting wool into cloth was so common as to excite no surprise. Improvements could scarcely be made either in the manufacture or in the flocks during the ravages of the Picts, the Saxons and the Danes, for property was then too precarious, and the spirit of the natives too much humbled. But Alfred was born to noble purposes. He subdued the invaders, and recovered his kingdom. He established a strict police, and rendered property secure. He gave encouragement to the arts, by exciting the emulation of his subjects. He had travelled far, and seen the comforts of other countries; and it is scarcely possible to believe that a person of his sagacity, and who had done so much to promote the welfare of his people, should totally overlook a mode of disposing of their wool most intimately connected with their enjoyment, their health and their civilization. Hence then we have some reason to conclude, that through the first nine hundred years of the Christian æra, the wools of England were not entirely neglected, although it does not appear, from any documents which now remain, that they were in any respects superior to those produced at that time upon the continent.

From the prices of wool which are mentioned as the current rate of the fleece, in the early periods of our history, we are induced to think that the article was cultivated with considerable attention. About the year nine hundred and twenty five, a fleece was valued at two-fifths of the whole sheep, a proportion much greater than that which it bears at present, and which shows that either the demand for the carcase was much smaller, or that for the fleece was much more considerable than it is in our own times. The value of sheep continued nearly the same through several hundred years; but in eleven hundred and thirty five it declined fifty per cent. while wool at the same time greatly advanced in price, and continued to do so through the space of two centuries. This was most probably owing to the improvements which it received from culture, and to the increased demand for it at home and abroad.

From the obscure hints which remain of these periods, we conjecture that the number of sheep in the kingdom was very inconsiderable; and the existence of wolves before the reign of Edgar retarded their increase. But the measures adopted by that prince in nine hundred and sixty-six to destroy those animals, which are the natural enemies of sheep, manifest a degree of solicitude for the preservation of the flocks, which we could scarcely have expected at a period so early, and were admirably adapted to promote that attention to them, which contributes to their improvement.

It appears, however, that the amelioration of the fleece did not keep pace with the inclination of the people for fine cloth. In the reign of Henry II. Spanish wool, doubtless on account of its superior excellency, was imported and manufactured in this kingdom; but the policy of the age did not long permit it, the Mayor of London was ordered to burn every piece in which it was found. The statute which enjoined this was framed for the encouragement of the British farmer, and the improvement of his wool; yet we cannot think that the principles upon which the measure was adopted were sufficiently enlarged even for that day. It tended to destroy that commercial spirit which began to manifest itself, and threw the best materials into the

hands of foreigners, who already knew their value, and who soon afterwards supplied even England with the goods which were made from them. About twelve hundred and forty, the importation of fine cloth into England began to be encouraged; although its effects upon the fleeces of that country, and upon the interests of its farmers, must have been more pernicious than the manufacture of Spanish wool could possibly have been, had not the resistless spirit of commerce counteracted the evil tendency, and carried out the surplus of wool which it was calculated to create. This kind of traffic between England and Flanders subsisted about an hundred years, without interruption. But a people, which had displayed so much enterprise as was observable among the British, could not long continue satisfied with conveying their own produce in an unmanufactured state to others, from whom they received it again at a much higher rate. About the year thirteen hundred and thirty, they began seriously to encourage the manufacture of woollens among themselves. Conscious of the superior expertness of the Flemings, some of these people were tempted to come over and settle in the country. They taught the natives to exercise the art of manufacturing wool with dexterity equal to their own, and contributed to promote the true interest of the community. This important step being once taken, the sanguine temper of the legislators induced them to suppose that the English fabrics would soon be extensive enough to require all the wool of the kingdom, and in order to anticipate their wants, or perhaps rather to create them, a law was passed totally prohibiting the exportation of it. The event sufficiently manifested how much influence the looms of the Netherlands had exercised over the pastures of England, and how greatly they had contributed to the production and improvement of her fleeces. It shows the folly of attempting to compel the current of commerce to take a new direction, and the ease with which, by gentler means, it may be allured to change its channel.

The surplus of wool, from the time of Henry II. down to that of Edward III. appears to have constantly increased; and the exportation as regularly took it off the hands of the grower. But

it is not probable that while the demand for fine wools was so great abroad, the stapler should be utterly inattentive to the quality of that which he sent to market; nor while the taste for superior cloths continued at home, that the manufacturer would be careless respecting the kind which he made use of. Both circumstances contributed to operate upon the grower's attention, and induced him to prefer those kinds which met with the readiest sale, and procured him the best prices. Accordingly we find, in the southern parts of the island, where the manufacture was most attended to, and from which the largest quantity was exported, that there the flocks are in the best condition, and the quality of the staple most desirable. The growing influence of the foreign trade may be estimated with some degree of accuracy by the quantity which it took off at the commencement and the close of the period. In the beginning of the thirteenth century, it was probably less than one thousand and sixty-eight sacks; about the year thirteen hundred and forty, it was scarcely less than thirty thousand, each of them weighing three hundred and sixty-four pounds.

(To be continued.)

LEGAL INTELLIGENCE.

☞ Under this head (when important Acts of Parliament do not claim a prior attention) it is purposed to give concise reports of all material cases connected with Commerce, &c. adjudged during the current month: together with a brief statement of the Law of Debtor and Creditor, Insurance, Landlord and Tenant, and, in short, whatever relates to the various legal duties that may in any way affect the Merchant, Trader, or Manufacturer; so as to form, in the progress of this work, an useful Law Library.

I. *Abstract of the* 48 *G.* 3. *c.* 70, *for regulating the Price and Assize of Bread; and punishing Persons who shall adulterate Meal, Flour, or Bread, so far as the same relates to the weighing of Bread to be baked and sold within the Weekly Bills of Mortality, and within ten miles of the Royal Exchange.*

AFTER reciting, that the provisions of the 31 G. 2. c. 29, so far as the same relates to the weighing of bread, and to the punishing of persons

whose bread shall be found deficient in weight, have been found defective; and it is expedient that other regulations should be made in lieu thereof in respect to the weighing of bread within the weekly bills of mortality, and within ten miles of the Royal Exchange, and the punishing of persons residing within those limits whose bread shall be found deficient in weight: It is enacted, That from the passing of this act, so much of the said act as relates to the weighing of bread, and the punishing of persons whose bread shall be found deficient in weight, within the weekly bills of mortality, and within ten miles of the Royal Exchange, shall be repealed; and instead thereof, it is enacted, that if any baker or seller of bread residing within those limits, shall at any time from and after the passing of this act, make, send out, sell, or expose to or for sale, any bread deficient in weight, according to the assize which shall be set, for any such bread from time to time to be sold at, in pursuance of any act or acts then in force for regulating the price and assize of bread, any magistrate or justice, within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, before whom any information shall be given upon the oath of one or more credible witnesses of any such deficiency in weight; and also any peace officers authorized by warrant under the hand and seal, or hands and seals, of any such magistrate or justice (and which warrant any such magistrate or justice, is empowered to grant upon receiving such information upon oath as aforesaid), at seasonable times in the day-time, shall enter into any house, shop, stall, bakehouse, warehouse, or outhouse, of or belonging to any such baker or seller of bread, against whom such information shall have been made to search for, view, weigh, and try all such bread as shall be then and there found, and shall have been baked within twenty-four hours next preceding the time of the same being so weighed, and which bread may be weighed by the bushel, or in any larger or smaller quantity, as may be found most convenient: and if on the weighing of such bread any deficiency shall be found in its due weight, on the average of the whole weight of all such bread as shall be then and there found, and which shall have been baked within twenty-four hours as aforesaid, and which deficiency shall be proved before such magistrate or magistrates, justice or justices, upon the oath or oaths of the party or parties weighing the same, then he or they so offending in the premises, and being thereof convicted in manner as by the said act is directed, shall forfeit not exceeding five shillings, nor less than one shilling for every ounce of bread which shall be so found deficient in weight, on the average of all such bread as shall have been so weighed, and so in proportion for every de-

ficiency of weight less than an ounce, as any such magistrate or justice, before whom any such deficiency in weight shall be proved, shall think fit to order, except as hereafter is excepted: and any such magistrate, justice, or peace officer, within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, may, in such case, where there is a deficiency of weight on the average as aforesaid, seize all such deficient loaves; and any such magistrate or justice, may dispose thereof as he shall think fit, except it shall be proved to him, by or on the behalf of the parties against whom any such information shall be made, by the oath, or affirmation, being a quaker, of any one or more respectable housekeepers, that such deficiency in weight wholly arose from some unavoidable accident in baking, or otherwise, or was occasioned by or through some contrivance or confederacy. § 1.

Every baker and seller of bread within the weekly bills of mortality, and within ten miles of the Royal Exchange, shall have fixed in some convenient place of his or her shop a beam and scales, with proper weights of the assize weight of a quartern loaf and an half quartern loaf; and any person or persons who may purchase any quartern or half quartern loaf or loaves of bread of any such baker or seller of bread, may, if he, she, or they, shall think proper, require the same to be weighed in his, her, or their presence; and if any such loaf or loaves shall be found deficient in weight, then the person or persons demanding the same to be so weighed shall have the deficiency made up with other bread, or another loaf or loaves given in lieu thereof, as may be required. § 2.

Any baker or seller of bread, within the limits abovementioned, who shall neglect to fix such beam and scales in some convenient part of his or her shop; or to provide and keep for use proper weights, or whose weights shall be deficient in their due weight, or who shall refuse to weigh any quartern or half quartern loaf or loaves purchased in his, her, or their shop, in the presence of the party or parties requiring the same, he, she, or they shall, for every such offence, forfeit, not exceeding twenty shillings, nor less than five shillings, as the magistrate or justice before whom such offender shall be convicted, shall think fit. § 3.

All the clauses of the 31 G. 2. c. 29, so far as they are not repealed by this act, are to continue in force, and the respective penalties by this act imposed are recoverable under the 31 G. 2. c. 29. § 4.

But no master, mistress, or journeyman baker, is to bake victuals after one o'clock on the Lord's day, nor any master baker to deliver after

half-past one, on the said day; or in any other manner exercise the trade of a baker, or be engaged in the business thereof, except so far as may be necessary in setting and superintending the sponge, to prepare the bread, or dough, for the following day's baking: And every person offending against the foregoing regulations, or any one, or more of them, or making any sale or delivery hereby allowed, between the hours aforesaid, otherwise than within the bakehouse or shop, and being thereof convicted before any justice of the peace of the county, city, or place, where the offence shall be committed, within six days from the commission thereof, either upon view of such justice, or on confession by the party, or proof, by one or more witness or witnesses upon oath, shall, for every such offence, forfeit, pay, and undergo the forfeiture, penalty, and punishment, hereinafter mentioned, that is to say, for the first offence, the penalty of ten shillings; for the second offence, the penalty of twenty shillings, and for the third, and every subsequent offence respectively, the penalty of forty shillings; and shall, moreover, on every such conviction, bear and pay the costs and expences of the prosecution, such costs and expences so assessed, settled, and ascertained by the justice convicting, and the amount thereof, together with such part of the penalty, as such justice shall think proper, to be allowed to the prosecutor or prosecutors, for loss of time in instituting and following up the prosecution, at a rate not exceeding three shillings per diem, and to be paid to the prosecutor or prosecutors, for his and their own use and benefit; and the residue of such penalty to be paid to such justice, and within seven days after his receipt thereof to be transmitted by him to the churchwardens, or overseers of the parish or parishes where the offence shall be committed, to be applied for the benefit of the poor thereof; and in case the whole amount of the penalty, and of the costs and expences, as aforesaid, be not paid within fourteen days after conviction of the offender or offenders, such justice shall, by warrant under his hand and seal, direct the same to be levied and raised, by distress and sale of the goods and chattles of the offender or offenders, and, in default or insufficiency of such distress, commit the offender or offenders, to the house of correction, on a first offence, for the space of seven days, on a second offence for the space of fourteen days, and on a third, or any subsequent offence, for the space of one month, unless the whole of the penalty, costs, and expences be sooner paid and discharged; but every master or mistress baker, residing within the limits aforesaid, may deliver to his or her customers on the Lord's-day any bakings, *until half an hour past one of the clock in the afternoon of that*

day, without incurring or being liable to any of the penalties in this act contained. § 5.

But nothing in this act, contained, shall extend to any baker or other person residing in, or carrying on the trade or business of a baker within the city of London, or the liberties thereof, except so far as respects the exercising the trade of a baker on the Lord's day as aforesaid, or in any ways to affect, lessen or infringe upon the rights and privileges of the city of London, or of the worshipful company of bakers of the said city, or of the wardmote inquests of the said city, or of the city or liberties of Westminster, or borough of Southwark, or any right or custom, of any lord or lords of any leets, or the rights of any clerk or clerks of the market in any place which may be exercised or enjoyed by them or any of them, by virtue of any charters, bye-laws, prescriptions, usages, customs, privileges, grants or acts of parliament; but all such rights and privileges shall be held, exercised and enjoyed by the parties respectively intitled thereto, as fully and amply to all intents and purposes, as the same were held, exercised, and enjoyed before the passing of this act, any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding, regard being at all times had to the average weight of bread as before directed. § 6.

This act shall be deemed a public act for all purposes whatsoever, and shall be judicially noticed as such, by all judges, justices, and others, without specially pleading the same. § 7.

II. *By the bill now in parliament, all* promissory *notes for less than* 20*s. are to be void: and persons, uttering notes of less value, forfeit not less than* 5*l. nor more than* 20*l. for each offence.*

III. *Abstract of the new Act* 48 *G.* 3. *c.* 55. *for repealing the Duties of Assessed Taxes, and granting new Duties in lieu thereof, and certain additional Duties to be consolidated therewith; and also for repealing the Stamp Duties on Game Certificates, and granting new Duties in lieu thereof, to be placed under the Management of the Commissioners for the Affairs of Taxes.*

By the first Section, all the former duties on Armorial Bearings, Carriages, Dogs, Houses, Windows, Servants, Horses, Horse-dealers, Game,

and Hair-powder, which were imposed by the 43d G. 3. c. 161. 44 G. 3. c. 90. 45 G. 3. c. 13, and 46 G. 3. c. 78, are respectively repealed, and the duties contained in the schedules to that act are to be levied in lieu of the former duties. § 1, 3, 4.

By Section 2, the former duties imposed by the 43 G. 3. c. 161, on Carriages made by Coach-makers, and on Persons selling Carriages by Auction or Commission, and also the additional duties imposed by the 45 G. 3. c. 13. on Horses used for riding, or for drawing certain Carriages; and also the duties contained in the 46 G. 3. c. 78, are repealed; and the duties granted by this act are to be levied under the regulations of 43 G. 3. c. 161. as also duties repealed which have not been duly charged, and also all arrears of such duties.

The new duties, granted by the 48 G. 3. c. 55, are in the following pages arranged alphabetically for greater convenience of reference.

1. *Table of the Duties payable by Persons for any Armorial Bearing or Ensign, used or worn by them, by whatever Name the same shall be called. (Schedule K.) viz.*

By every such person chargeable with any duty made payable by this act, for any coach or carriage, the annual sum of 2l. 8s.

By every such person not chargeable for any such coach, &c. but who shall be chargeable to any of the duties on inhabited houses, or to the duties on houses, windows, or lights, made payable by this act, the annual sum of 1l. 4s.

By every such person not chargeable for any such coach or other carriage, nor being chargeable to the said duties on inhabited houses, or to the duties on houses, windows, or lights, the annual sum of 12s.

Such duties to be paid by every person having used any armorial bearing or ensign, within the year preceding the term for which the assessment ought to be made, and to extend to every person who within the said period shall have been possessed of, or shall have kept or had any coach or other carriage chargeable with the duty by this act, or any seal, plate, or other article, on which carriage, seal, plate, or other article, any armorial bearing or ensign is or shall have been, during the said period, painted, engraved, marked, or affixed, and whether such armorial bearing or ensign is or shall have been, during the said period, painted, engraved, marked, or affixed, and whether such armorial bearing or ensign shall be registered in the college of arms or not. But the royal family, or any person who shall, by right of office, have worn or used any of the arms or insignia of the royal family, or used

in any city, borough, or town corporate, are exempted from these duties. (Schedule K.)

2. *Table of Duties imposed, and payable on all Carriages of any of the Descriptions mentioned herein. (Schedule D. referred to in the Act.)*

NUMBER OF CARRIAGES.	Amount of duty for each carriage.
For Carriages with Four Wheels:	£. s. d.
(1) For 1 such carriage, annually the sum of	11 5 0
2 Do.	12 7 0
3 Do.	13 10 0
4 Do.	14 0 0
5 Do.	14 12 0
6 Do.	15 3 0
7 Do.	15 14 0
8 Do.	16 5 0
9 Do. and upwards	16 16 0
And for every additional body successively used on the same carriage or number of wheels, the further sum of	5 12 0

For every carriage with less than four wheels, (except taxed carts, constructed, kept, and used under the regulations of this act) drawn by one horse, mare, or gelding, and no more, 5l. 18s.

And for every such carriage, drawn by two or more horses, &c. 8l. 5s.

And for every additional body, of the description hereinafter mentioned, successively used on the same carriage or number of wheels, the further sum of 2l. 16s.

Rules for charging the above Duties.

These duties are directed to be charged respectively for every coach, berlin, landau, chariot, calash, chaise marine, chaise, sociable, or caravan, with four wheels; and for every calash, chaise marine, chaise, curricle, chair, or car, with less than four wheels, or any number thereof respectively; and for every other carriage with four wheels, or with less than four wheels, respectively used or to be used for the like purposes, by whatever names called or known, kept by any persons for their own use, or hired by the year, or any longer period; and upon all such carriages kept to be let out to hire, or to carry pas-

sengers for hire (except such carriages for which other duties are hereinafter made payable) and which duties shall be respectively paid by the person or persons keeping such carriages, and shall be chargeable upon the body, or if more than one, upon the bodies of such carriages respectively, according to the number thereof successively used on the same carriage or number of wheels in the manner before directed, and not in respect of the wheels thereof, or any other parts of such carriages to which the wheels shall be attached.

(2) For carriages hired for less than a year, or kept to be let to hire, to carry passengers:

For every such carriage with horses to be used therewith, for any time not exceeding twenty-eight days, so that the stamp-office duty, payable by law on horses let to hire, shall be duly paid and satisfied on every such letting by any post-master, inn-keeper, or other person licensed to let post-horses, and whereon the names, and place of abode of the persons so licensed shall be marked or painted, according to the directions of the act in that case made and provided; if such carriage shall have four wheels, the sum of 9l. 9s.

If less than four wheels, the respective sums mentioned in schedule (No. 2.) according to the number of horses used therewith, as therein mentioned.

And for every coach, diligence, caravan, or chaise with four wheels or more, or other carriage with four wheels or more, by whatever name called, which shall be kept as a public stage coach or carriage for the purpose of conveying passengers for hire to and from different places, and which shall be duly entered as such with the commissioners of stamp duties, the like sum of 9l. 9s.

All which last-mentioned duties shall respectively be paid by the persons keeping the same, for the purposes aforesaid.

(3) For every carriage kept for the purpose of being let to hire for less than one year, and so that the said stamp-office duty shall not by law be payable on such letting by any such licensed person, or by any coach-maker, or maker of such carriages, or other person, if such carriage shall have four wheels, annually the sum of 11l. 5s.

The last-mentioned duty to be paid by the persons keeping the same. But if a due return thereof shall not be made by the hirer according to the acts herein mentioned, the progressive duty as set forth in schedule (No. 1.) shall be chargeable in respect of every such carriage on the persons hiring the same, and making such default, subject to the provisions contained in the said acts, concerning the same.—And if such carriages shall have less than four wheels, the re-

spective sums mentioned in schedule (No. 2.) according to the number of horses to be used therewith, to be paid by the person or persons keeping the same for the purpose aforesaid, subject to the provisions herein-after contained concerning the same.

(4) *Taxed Carts.*—For every carriage with less than four wheels, to be drawn by one horse, &c. and no more, which shall be built and constructed wholly of wood and iron, without any other than a tilted covering, and without any lining or springs, of iron, wood, leather, or other materials, and with a fixed seat, without slings or braces, and without any ornament whatever, except paint of a dark colour for the preservation of the wood or iron only, and which shall have the words "a Taxed Cart," and the owner's christian and surname, and place of abode, marked or painted on a black ground in white letters, or on a white ground in black letters, on the outside of the back pannel or back part of such carriage, in words at full length, each of the letters thereof being at least one inch long, and proportionally broad, and the price of which (repairs excepted) shall not have exceeded, or the value thereof shall not at any time exceed, the sum of 12l. sterling, which shall be kept by any person or persons for his, her, or their own use, and not for hire, the annual sum of 1l. 6s. 6d.

From this charge, however, are excepted all carriages built and constructed as aforesaid, belonging to any person liable to be assessed to the before mentioned duties in respect of a four-wheeled carriage, or who are or shall be liable to be assessed to the duties on male servants in respect of two such male servants, which persons respectively shall be charged for such carriages, although built and constructed as aforesaid, at the rate prescribed in schedule, (No. 2), for carriages with less than four wheels.

The following are totally exempted, under the particular limitations herein mentioned, from all the preceding duties in schedules, No. 1, 2, 3, and 4, viz.—1. Any carriages belonging to his Majesty, or any of the royal family.—2. Any regularly licensed hackney coaches duly numbered.—3. Any carrriage kept by any coachmaker or maker of carriages, at any time after April 5, 1808, bona fide for the purpose of sale, or of being lent to any person whose carriage being of the same denomination or description shall be then making, mending, or repairing by such coachmaker, &c. and during the time the same shall be necessarily under repair; provided such carriage shall not at any time, whilst in the possession of such coachmaker or maker of carriages, be employed for his or her own use, or let to hire, or otherwise lent than as aforesaid.—

4. Any cart which shall be kept, truly and without fraud to be used wholly in the affairs of husbandry, or in the carriage of goods in the course of trade, and whereon the name and place of residence of the owner, and the words "Common Stage Cart" shall be legibly painted, although the owner, or his or her servants, may occasionally ride therein when laden, or when returning from any place to which or when going to any place from which any load shall have been or shall be to be carried in such carriage in the course of husbandry or trade; or for conveying the owners thereof or their families to or from any place of divine worship on Sunday, or on Christmas-day, or on Good Friday, or on any day appointed for a public fast or thanksgiving, or for carrying persons going to or returning from the elections of members to serve in parliament, in case such carriage shall not have been or be used for any other purpose of riding thereon or therein, save as aforesaid, or shall not have been or be let to hire for any of such purposes of riding therein or thereon.

3. *Table of Duties payable by Coachmakers and Makers of other Carriages, chargeable with Duty by this Act, and on Carriages made or sold as herein mentioned, (D. No. 5) and also by Persons selling Carriages chargeable with Duty by the* 43. *G.* 3. *c.* 55, *by Auction or on Commission, (D. No. 6. of the Act.)*

By every person carrying on the trade of a coachmaker or maker of any carriages, chargeable with duty by this act in Great Britain, the annual duty of 6s.

By every such coachmaker, &c. for every such carriage with four wheels which he or she shall make, build, or construct for sale, the sum of 1l. 2s. 6d.

And for every such carriage with two wheels, which he or she shall make, build, or construct for sale, the sum of 11s. 3d.

By every person who shall sell any carriage chargeable with duty this act, by way of auction or on commission, for profit or reward, in Great Britain, the annual duty of 6s.

By every such person for every such carriage with four wheels which he or she shall sell by auction or on commission, for such profit or reward the sum of 1l. 2s. 6d.

And for every such carriage with two wheels, which he or she shall sell in like manner, the sum of 11s. 3d.

4. *Duties payable on Dogs, (Schedule G. of the Act.)*

For every greyhound, hound, pointer, setting dog, spaniel, lurcher, or terrier, the annual sum of 11s. 6d.

For every dog of whatever description or denomination, where any person shall keep two or more, either for his own use, or the use of any other persons, the annual sum of 11s. 6d.

For every dog not being a greyhound, hound, &c. kept by any person having one such dog, and no more, whether the same be kept for his or her own use, or the use of any other person or persons, the annual sum of 7s.

The said duties to be paid by the persons respectively keeping such dogs, excepting in the following cases, viz. 1.—Any dog belonging to his Majesty, or any of the royal family.—2. Any person who, on account of poverty, shall be discharged from the assessment made in respect of his or her dwelling house in pursuance of the regulations of any of the acts herein mentioned, and having one dog, and no more, the same not being a greyhound, hound, pointer, setting dog, spaniel, lurcher, or terrier.—3. Any person in respect of a dog or whelp, which at the time of returning the list of dogs as by this act is required, shall not be six calendar months old.—4. Any person compounding for his or her hounds in any year within thirty days after the fifth day of April in such year, in pursuance of notice given to the collector of the said duty for any parish or place, where such person shall be liable to be assessed, of his or her intention so to do, and on payment of the full sum of 34l. to such collector or collectors, for which a receipt shall be given within the period before-mentioned.

5. *Duties payable for killing Game, (Schedule L. of the Act.)*

Upon every person who shall use any dog, gun, net, or other engine for the purpose of taking or killing any game whatever, or any woodcock, snipe, quail or landrail, or any conies, in any part of Great Britain:

If such person shall be a servant to any person duly charged in respect of such servant to the duties on servants, and shall use any dog, &c. for any of the purposes before mentioned, upon any manor or royalty in England, Wales, or Berwick-upon-Tweed, or upon any lands in Scotland, by virtue of any deputation or appointment, duly registered or entered as gamekeeper thereto, there shall be charged the annual sum of 1l. 1s. (See certificate A. p. 63.)

And if such person as last aforesaid shall not be a servant for whom the said duties on servants shall be charged, there shall be charged the annual sum of 3l. 3s. (See certificate B. p. 64.)

Upon every other person who shall use any dog, &c. for any of the purposes before-mentioned, there shall be charged the annual sum of 3l. 3s. (See certificate C. p. 64.)

Exceptions to the above Duties.

1. The taking of woodcocks and snipes with nets or springes.

2. The taking or destroying of conies in warrens, or in any inclosed ground whatever, or by any person in lands in his or her occupation, either by himself or herself, or by his or her direction or command.

For the more regular charging these Duties, the following Rules are provided, viz.

1. Every person who intends to use or shall use at any time after June 30, 1808, any dog, &c. for any of the purposes mentioned in schedule (L.) shall, before he shall so use the same in any year, pay or cause such duty to be paid each year to the collectors of the duties, and shall obtain a certificate thereof in the manner herein directed; which certificate shall continue in force until and upon the fifth day of April next after the time of issuing the same, and no longer.

2. Every collector on such application to him made by any such person, and on payment of, shall give a receipt for the same, which shall be signed by such collector, and made out conformable to such of the annexed forms for certificates as the case may require; and every such receipt shall be a charge on the parish or place for which such collector shall be appointed for the sum therein expressed, in like manner as if the said sum had been previously assessed and levied by such collector under the warrant of the commissioners acting in the execution of this act, for which receipt the said collector shall be entitled to demand and receive from such person, one shilling over and above the said duty, and no more, which sum shall be deemed the compensation to such collector for his pains and care in executing this act; and the duty so received shall be paid to the receiver-general or his deputy at his or their next receipt of duties, in full and without deduction; but the receipts given for the duties contained in this schedule shall not be liable to any stamp duty whatever.

3. Every such receipt being delivered to the clerk of the commissioners for the district where such person shall reside, shall be

exchanged for a certificate made out in one of the forms in this schedule corresponding with such receipt, which certificate the said clerk is hereby required, on demand, to make out and deliver gratis to such person in exchange for the said receipt.

4. The said receipts, so exchanged, shall be entered by the clerks in books to be kept for that purpose, as the commissioners of taxes shall direct; and the said books, together with the receipts, being exhibited to commissioners acting for the district, and examined by them, shall be sufficient authority to them from time to time to assess the several persons mentioned in such receipts in the respective sums paid by them, which assessments shall be of the like force in all respects, and shall be as binding on the several collectors and others acting under this act, and on the several parishes and places for which such collectors shall have been appointed, as any assessment to be made by the said commissioners respectively under the regulations of the said acts under which they act as commissioners; and the said commissioners shall return duplicates thereof to the receiver-general, and to the commissioners for the affairs of taxes, in the manner directed by the said acts.

5. The commissioners of taxes shall cause a sufficient number of receipts to be distributed amongst the several clerks, and by them to the several collectors in their respective districts, and such clerks shall be accountable to the said commissioners of taxes for the same; and the several collectors shall be accountable to the respective clerks for the same; and the said commissioners shall cause a sufficient number of forms to be used for certificates, according to the forms specified in the schedule annexed, to be distributed to the respective clerks in like manner.

6. Where no clerk shall be appointed, the surveyor of the district shall do his duty as specified in rule 5.

7. Every master or mistress liable to the duties on servants, for any gamekeeper, whether he shall have been deputed or appointed by such master or mistress, or by any other person, and every person granting a deputation or appointment to the servant of any other person, who shall be duly charged to the said duty on servants, whether as gamekeeper, or in any other capacity, with power and authority to use any dog, gun, net, or other engine, for any of the purposes mentioned in this schedule, shall be at liberty to obtain a receipt and certificate on behalf of such servant, on paying the duty for the same, as before directed; and such receipt and certificate shall be a sufficient authority to

assess the master or mistress, or person granting such deputation or appointment, and obtaining such receipt and certificate as aforesaid, and the certificate to be issued thereupon, shall exempt the servant named therein, during his continuance in the same capacity and service; and also shall exempt any servant of the same master or mistress who shall succeed to the deputation or appointment of the same manor or royalty, or lands, within the year for which the duty shall be so assessed, for the remainder of such year; and no such servant in whose behalf a receipt and certificate hath been duly obtained, shall be required to obtain a certificate for himself, nor be liable to the duty hereby granted, nor to any penalty by reason of not obtaining a certificate in his own name, or for not paying the said duty: But every certificate so granted under this act shall, upon revocation of such deputation or appointment, be from thenceforth void and of no further effect, as to the person therein deputed or appointed. In case, however any lord or lady of any manor in England, Wales, or Berwick-upon-Tweed, or proprietor of lands in Scotland, shall, on the revocation of any deputation or appointment by virtue of which a certificate hath been granted for any year, make a new deputation or appointment within the same year, to any person in his or her service, or in the service of the same master or mistress who shall have been charged, as well to the duties on servants as to the game duties granted by this act, the clerk to the commissioners of the district shall renew the certificate for the remainder of that year, in behalf of the person so newly appointed, without any duty or fee, by endorsing on such certificate the name and place of abode of the person to whom such last-mentioned deputation or appointment had been granted, and declaring the same to be a renewed certificate, free from duty or fee.

8. Neither the assessment of the duty hereby imposed, nor the payment therof, nor the certificate delivered, nor any thing herein contained or done in pursuance of this act, shall authorise any person to use any dog, gun, net, or engine for the purposes herein mentioned, at any time, or in any manner prohibited by any law in force at and immediately before the passing of this act, nor unless such person shall be duly qualified so to do, by virtue of the laws in being; and all penalties and forfeitures, actions and suits, may be prosecuted and maintained for such offences as if this act had not been made.

9. No assessment or certificate under this act, or payment of the duty hereby imposed, by or for any person acting under a deputation or appointment, shall be received in evidence, or be available in law or equity, in any prosecution under this act, where proof shall

be given of using any dog, gun, net, or other engine for any of the purposes mentioned in this schedule, out of the precincts or limits of the manor, royalty, or lands for which such deputation or appointment was made or granted.

10. If any person be found using any dog, gun, &c. for any of the purposes mentioned in this schedule in respect whereof such person shall be chargeable as aforesaid, by any assessor or collector of the parish where any such person shall then be, or by any Commissioner for executing this act, for the county, riding, division or place, in which such person shall then be, or by any lord or lady, or gamekeeper of the manor, royalty or lands wherein such person shall then be, or by any inspector or surveyor of taxes for the district, or by any person duly assessed to the duties granted in this schedule, or by the owner, landlord, lessee, or occupier of the land in which such person shall then be, such assessor, collector, commissioner or gamekeeper, inspector or surveyor, or other person assessed as aforesaid, or such owner, landlord, lessee, or occupier of land as aforesaid, may demand and require from the person so using such dog, gun, &c. the production of his certificate, which certificate every such person is hereby required to produce to the person so demanding the same, and permit him to read the same, and (if he shall think fit) to take a copy thereof or any part thereof; or in case no such certificate shall be produced, the person having made such demand may require the person so using such dog, gun, &c. forthwith to declare his christian and surname, and place of residence, and the parish or place (if any) in which he shall have been assessed to the duties by this act granted; and if any such person shall, after such demand made, wilfully refuse to produce and shew a certificate issued to him for that purpose, or in default thereof as aforesaid, to give in to the person so demanding the same, his christian and surname, and place of residence, and the parish or place (if any) in which he shall have been assessed, or shall produce or give any false or fictitious certificate, name, place of residence, or place of assessment, every such person shall forefeit and pay the sum of twenty pounds, to be sued for, recovered, and applied in the like manner as any penalty may be sued for, recovered and applied by the acts herein mentioned, relating to the duties under the management of the commissioners for the affairs of taxes; provided, that the commissioners before whom the information for the said penalty shall be made, shall also be justices of the peace of and for the said county, riding, division or place where the said offence shall be committed.

11. The commissioners of taxes shall once, or oftener, in every year, as soon as conveniently may be after such certificates shall have been issued, cause the names and residences of the several persons to or for whom such certificates have been granted for that year, in each county, distinguishing the person acting under any deputations or appointments from others, and the manors, royalties, or lands, for which deputations or appointments have been granted; and also distinguishing the rate of duty assessed, to be inserted in some newspaper, circulated in each respective county, or in such other newspaper, and in such manner as to them shall seem proper.

12. If any person or persons shall, after the 30th day of June 1808, use any dog, gun, &c. for any of the purposes above mentioned, without having obtained such certificates as is directed by this act, every such person shall be liable to the duty of 3l. 3s. for that year, and also shall forfeit and pay the sum of 20l. over and above the said duty; which duty shall be assessed by way of surcharge, according to the directions of the said acts respectively, in the district where the offence shall be committed; and the said penalty shall be sued for in like form and manner as any penalty may be sued for, prosecuted, and recovered by the acts herein mentioned, relating to the duties under the management of the commissioners for the affairs of taxes, or any of the said acts.

It should be remarked, that the Royal Family are exempted from the duties on game in schedule (L.)

The following forms of certificates, above referred to, are transposed from a subsequent part of the act, viz.

I. *Form of Certificate to be issued to every Gamekeeper, being a Servant for whom the Master or Mistress, or the Lord or Lady, or other Proprietor of the Manor or Royalty shall be duly assessed to the Duty on Servants.*

No. GAME DUTY CERTIFICATE (A.)

[To be used when the servant pays the duty.]

By *A. B.* Clerk to the commissioners acting in the execution of the acts for assessed taxes, for the division of *I.*, in the county of *L.*

Received from *C. D.* residing in the parish [*or*, township] of [*here name the parish or township*] in the said county, an assessed servant of *E. F.* [*here name the master or mistress*] of [*here name the residence of the*

master or mistress] (in exchange for this certificate), a receipt under the hand of *G. H.*, one of the collectors of assessed taxes for the said parish [*or*, township], of [*here name the parish or township*], for the sum of one guinea, as the game duty chargeable upon the said *C. D.*, in respect of his deputation as gamekeeper of the manor or royalty of *K*, in the said county, (if the certificate be granted in England, or if in Scotland), in respect of his appointment of gamekeeper of the lands of *K.*, in the said county. Given in pursuance of an act passed in the forty-eighth year of the reign of George the third, and certified the day of in the year of our Lord

(Signed) Clerk.

This certificate will expire on the Day of

II. No. GAME DUTY CERTIFICATE (B.)

[To be used when the master pays the duty.]

By *A. B.* Clerk to the commissioners acting in the execution of the acts for assessed taxes for the division of *I.*, in the county of *L.*

Received from *E. F.* [*here name the master or mistress*] residing in the parish [*or*, place] of [*here name the residence of the master or mistress*] in the said county, on behalf of *C. D.*, an assessed servant of the said *E. F.* (in exchange for this certificate), a receipt under the hand of *G. H.*, one of the collectors of assessed taxes for the said parish [*or*, township] of [*here name the parish or township*], for the sum of one guinea, as the game duty chargeable upon the said servant in respect of his deputation as gamekeeper of the manor or royalty of *K.*, in the said county, (if the certificate be granted in England, or if in Scotland), in respect of his appointment as gamekeeper of the lands of *K.*, in the said county. Given in pursuance of an act passed in the forty-eighth year of the reign of George the third, and certified the day of in the year of our Lord

(Signed) Clerk.

This certificate will expire on the Day of

III. *Form of Certificate to be issued to every Gamekeeper not being an assessed Servant to any Person or Persons.*

No. GAME DUTY CERTIFICATE (C.)

By *A. B.* Clerk to the commissioners acting in the execution of the acts for assessed taxes for the division of *I.*, in the county of *L.*

Received from *C. D.*, residing in the parish [*or*, township] of [*here name the parish or township*] in the said county in exchange for this certificate), a receipt under the hand of *G. H.*, one of the collectors of assessed taxes for the said parish [*or*, township] of [*here name the parish or township*], for the sum of three guineas, for the game duty chargeable upon the said *C. D.*, in respect of his deputation as gamekeeper of the manor or royalty of *K.*, in the said county, (if the certificate be granted in England, or if in Scotland), in respect of his appointment as gamekeeper of the lands of *K.* in the said county, the said *C. D.* not being an assessed servant to any person or persons. Given in pursuance of an act passed in the forty-eighth year of the reign of George the Third, and certified the Day of in the year of our Lord

(Signed) Clerk.

This certificate will expire on the Day of

IV. Form of Certificate to be issued to every Person not being a Gamekeeper.

No. GAME DUTY CERTIFICATE (D.)

By *A. B.* clerk to the commissioners acting in the execution of the acts for assessed taxes for the division of *I.* in the county of *L.*

Received from *C. D.* residing in the parish [*or township*] of [*here name the parish or township*] in the said county (in exchange for this certificate) a receipt under the head of *G. H.*, one of the collectors of assessed taxes for the said parish [*or township*] of [*here name the parish or township*] for the sum of three guineas for the game duty, chargeable upon the said *C. D.* in his own right, throughout Great Britain. Given in pursuance of an act passed in the forty-eighth year of the reign of George the third, and certified the Day of in the year of our Lord

(Signed) Clerk.

This certificate will expire on the Day of

(To be continued.)

VII. *Hints and Cautions, addressed to young Tradesmen, &c. connected with their future Prosperity in Business.*

ON THE DIGNITY AND FORMATION OF THE MERCANTILE CHARACTER.

ADDISON has somewhere remarked, that "there are not more useful members in a commonwealth than merchants. They knit mankind together in a mutual intercourse of good offices, distribute the gifts of nature, find work for the poor, and wealth to the rich, and magnificence to the great." Such being the real estimate of the mercantile character, the following considerations on its proper formation, may not at the present crisis be irrelevant.

A merchant is, with us, understood to be one who buys and sells any commodities in gross or wholesale, or deals in exchanges; who traffics in the way of commerce, either by importation or exportation; and, in fine, who is continually occupied in the business or mystery of merchandizing. Formerly, indeed, every one who bought or sold in the retail way, was denominated a merchant; and this appellation is still continued in France and Holland: but, in England, mere shopkeepers, or those who attend fairs and markets, have long since lost the name of merchants.

The mercantile profession is very ancient, and is generally esteemed to be noble and independent. In the former kingdom of France, every encouragement was given by Lewis XIV, who, by two several ordinances, allowed his noblesse to trade both by sea and land, without any derogation from their nobility. And further, to animate the French nation in general to the vigorous pursuit and cultivation of its commercial interests, the celebrated statesman COLBERT, prevailed on the Bishop of Avranches to write an historical "Treatise on the Commerce of the Antients." The happiest consequences resulted from the communication of this work to the most distinguished persons in France; who, from being lukewarm and indifferent to the national in-

terests of trade, became and continued to be its most strenuous advocates and zealous supporters.

In most other parts of maritime Europe, (Spain alone excepted) the mercantile profession has ever been held in the greatest estimation, and every possible encouragement has been given to induce a continuance of its exertions, as the principal source, not only of the national prosperity, but also of the Sovereign's wealth and respectability. In our future numbers, we propose to lay before our readers well authenticated accounts of eminent merchants, manufacturers, &c. of different ages and countries, whom their industry and prudence have raised to respectability and to opulence.

Peculiarly favoured as we are by our insular situation, it is only within the last century that the mercantile interest has been more especially regarded, so as to place it in that rank and respectability to which it is most justly entitled. During the early ages of our history, our commerce was carried on, principally by foreigners, to whom every encouragement was given to settle here, though some instances of maltreatment occasionally stain the pages of our annals. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, a more liberal policy was displayed; and the seeds of our commercial prosperity, which were sown by the hands of her wise and upright ministers, have by a succession of favourable circumstances, (among which the discovery and colonization of America, must primarily be considered) been gradually matured into the stately tree, whose branches extend to every part of the known world.

(To be continued.)

Biographical Sketches of Manufacturers, Merchants, &c. who have risen to Eminence by means of Commerce.

MEMOIRS OF THE LATE DAVID DALE, ESQ. OF GLASGOW.

THERE are few characters, perhaps, which can with more propriety be selected to commence this department of our work, than that of the late Mr. Dale, whose integrity of conduct and

general excellency of deportment endeared him to all who had the happiness of being acquainted with him.

Mr. D. was born A. D. 1739, at Stewart town, in the county of Ayr, where he was educated under the auspices of his parents; whose character and circumstances were alike respectable, and who conscientiously inculcated upon him habits of seriousness and of piety. About the year 1761, Mr. Dale arrived in Glasgow, where he was confidentially employed as a clerk or shopman by Mr. James Alston. Two years afterwards, he entered into business, in the linen yarn trade, in partnership with a young man. Subsequently he engaged in partnership with different other persons; and, lastly, carried on trade alone, for some time with various and doubtful success, till he embarked in the French linen yarn line. This article he exclusively imported from Flanders, and carried on the traffic with good success and to a great extent, until the muslin manufacture was introduced.

Sir Richard Arkwright and other eminent manufacturers then employed him, as their agent in Glasgow for the sale of their cotton yarn. This engagement led him into several partnerships in the cotton spinning department, and ultimately to the establishment of the LANERK COTTON MILLS in the year 1785, of which he was the entire proprietor. To these brief details it may be added that, for many years, he was one of the cashiers of the Royal Glasgow Bank; and also discharged the functions of a magistrate of that opulent city, much to the satisfaction of his fellow citizens. Mr. Dale presents the rare instance of a man raised by commerce to a state of considerable prosperity; yet that prosperity, far from contracting his heart, as too frequently is the case, enabled him to adorn the pure religion laid down in the Scriptures, by acts of very extensive liberality to the poor, and to display a very active and public benevolence on every occasion. For several of his latter years, Mr. D. felt the infirmities of age; although he was not confined till within two or three weeks of his death.

Of a life thus actively spent in honourable usefulness and in diffusive benevolence, the end was peace. Not indeed that the

subject of this sketch was exempted from the troubles and anxieties incident to life: many such he had to encounter, from persons who were most closely connected with him; but they served only to exalt and to endear his character the more, to all who knew or were acquainted with him. Mr. Dale expired, April 17, 1806, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, beloved and lamented by every one with whom he had been connected, or to whom he had been known. His fellow citizens—and especially the poor—bewailed him as their father; for on all occasions they had found him to be such whenever they applied to him for counsel or for assistance. Modest and unassuming in his manners, his charities—though numerous and great—were never ostentatious. On the contrary, he was so solicitous to conceal them, that many of the individuals, whom he had rescued from wretchedness and want, never knew the hand which had been made instrumental for their deliverance. In fine, his memory remains deeply engraven on the hearts of his friends, his fellow-christians, and his countrymen.

Mention having incidentally been made of the Lanerk cotton mills, we shall conclude this sketch with an account of them, as communicated by the philanthropic Thomas Bernard, Esq. as it will serve to place the character of Mr. Dale in a more striking point of view, for prudence and benevolence, than any laboured panegyric could effect.

The cotton mills at New Lanerk in the county of Lanerk in Scotland, are situate in a beautiful and romantic amphitheatre, near the high road between Carlisle and Glasgow. The rapid stream of the Clyde supplies that abundance of water, which is the powerful operator of the machinery. For the purpose of conveying and directing its power, a subterraneous aqueduct is cut for many hundred yards through the solid rock. The first mill, in length 154 feet, was originally erected in 1785; and having been burnt down, was rebuilt in 1789. The second is exactly of the same dimensions; the third is 130 feet, and the fourth 156 feet in length.

The two first mills contain 12,000 spindles for spinning water twist; the other two are occupied by Jennys, for spinning mule

yarn. The village of New Lanerk owes its existence to the erection of these mills. It consists of neat substantial houses; forming two streets about half a mile in length, and broad, regular, and clean. Near the centre of the village are the mills; and opposite to them, a neat mansion, the occasional residence of Mr. Dale, the late proprietor, and of his principal manager. The village, consisting chiefly of Highlanders from the counties of Argyle, Caithness, and Inverness, contains about 1,500 inhabitants; of whom all who are capable of work are employed in and about the mills. Of these, there are 500 children, who are entirely fed, clothed, and educated by Mr. Dale. The others lodge with their parents in the village, and have a weekly allowance for their work.

The healthy and pleasurable appearance of these children has frequently attracted the attention of the traveller. Peculiar regulations, adopted by Mr. Dale for the preservation of the health and morals of those under his protection, have made this striking difference between his manufactory and many other similiar undertakings in this kingdom; so that while some other mills must be regarded as seminaries of vice, and sources of disease, those at Lanerk are so peculiarly exempt from these objections, that out of near 3000 children employed in these mills during a period of 12 years, from 1785 to 1797, only fourteen have died; and not one has been the object of judicial punishment.

In order to supply that first necessary of life, pure and fresh air, the windows of the manufactory are frequently opened; and in summer there are air holes left under every other window.---Cleanliness is another great object of attention. The children wash themselves before they go to work, and also after it before they appear in the schools. The floors and the machinery are washed once a week with hot water; and the ceilings and walls, twice a year, with unslacked lime.---The children who reside in the house, and who have their maintenance in lieu of wages, are lodged in six large airy apartments. The boys and girls are kept distinctly apart; not only in the hours of rest and refreshment, but during the time of occupation.---They

sleep on cast-iron bedsteads, on a bed-tic filled with straw, which is changed regularly every month. The bedrooms are swept, and the windows thrown open every morning, and kept open all the day. Many of the children have contrived to provide themselves with boxes with locks, in which they keep their books and their little property. Their upper clothing in summer is cotton, which is washed once a fortnight. In winter the boys are dressed in woollen; and, as well as the girls, have dress suits for Sundays.

For dinner they have seven ounces each of fresh beef with barley broth, or alternately five ounces of cheese; and a plentiful allowance of potatoes, or barley bread. This part of the table diet is seldom varied; except in winter by a dinner of fresh herrings, as a change. Their breakfast and supper consist of oatmeal porridge, with the addition of milk in summer; and, during the winter, with a sauce made of molasses and beer.

Seven o'clock is the hour of supper; soon after which *(for that pernicious practice, called night-work, is entirely excluded from these mills)* the schools commence, and continue till nine o'clock. Mr. Dale had engaged three regular masters, to instruct the lesser children during the day. In the evening they are assisted by seven others, one of whom teaches writing. There is likewise a woman to teach the girls sewing, and another who occasionally gives lessons in church music. The masters preside over the boy's dinner table. On Sundays they conduct them to the place of divine worship; and, in the evening of Sunday, attend to assist and improve them, by religious and moral information.

In the year 1791, a vessel carrying emigrants to America, from the isle of Skye, was driven by stress of weather into Greenock, and about 200 persons were put on shore in a very destitute situation. Mr. Dale offered them all immediate employment; which the greater part accepted. Soon after he notified to the people of the Highlands and the Hebrides, the degree of encouragement which he would give to families at the cotton mills; and undertook to provide houses for 200 families. These were finished in 1793; in consequence of which

a considerable number of Highlanders have taken up their residence at New Lanerk. Several families also, who were last year driven from Ireland, have found immediate employment here.

Mr. Bernard expresses a fervent wish that it were in his power to shew many examples like those of the late Mr. Dale's mills at Lanerk. Some few of these manufactories have been distinguished for attention to health and cleanliness, and many of them for very curious mechanism, and ingenious inventions, by which the operations are produced and facilitated; but he had not had the good fortune to find in any (though it doubtless does exist in some instances) that proper degree of attention, which ought to be paid to the morals and instruction of the children. *Where boys and girls are indiscriminately employed at all hours, not only of the day, but of the night,* and are mingled together without any advantage of education, without benefit of religious instruction or moral principle, and without any friend to advise or protect them, can we be astonished at their plunging in a very early age, *and almost during childhood,* in every wretched and disgusting species of debauchery? Can we be surprised that our numerous and crowded manufactories should be the nurseries of thieves and prostitutes; sent out at an early age to their own ruin, and to the annoyance of the kingdom, and of every individual of which it is composed?

Such, however, is the present spirit and speculation of this country, that wherever the demon of gain raises his banner, talents and exertion are sure to follow it. Cotton mills are as yet but in their infancy. (Mr. B. wrote this in 1800). Whilst great profits and immense fortunes are to be made by them, we know they must rapidly increase; and it is too obvious, that without public attention, they must be destructive of the moral and religious principles of the great mass of the people. The effect of this species of abridgment of labour is so great, that 100 persons in a cotton mill, will do more spinning, and of a superior quality, and of ten times the fineness than can be produced by 3000 of the very best spinners by hand. In consequence of

this, cotton mills have almost entirely deprived the cottager's wife and children of these means of domestic industry. The profit of spinning by hand is so reduced, that whole districts of cottagers' families have been obliged to give it up, and apply for relief to the parish.

Our national and individual increase of wealth, from the manufacture of cotton, has been attended with so much injury to the health and morals of the poor, and is so utterly destructive of that which constitute the essential and fundamental virtue of the female character, that Mr. Bernard remarks, if he be not permitted to suggest a doubt, whether it would not have been better for us *that cotton mills had never been erected in this island*, he may at least express an anxious wish, that such regulations may be adopted and enforced, as shall diminish, if not entirely remove, the injurious and pernicious effects which must otherwise attend them.

With this view Mr. Bernard suggests an outline of some regulations to the public, not merely with reference to cotton mills, but to all other manufactories under similar circumstances; and particularly to those, in which children are engaged as apprentices. These remarks being calculated to promote morality and good order, we conceive no apology to be necessary for their introduction.

In the first place Mr. B. conceives that some general and public attention ought to be paid to the moral and religious improvement of so numerous a class of our fellow subjects; and that the most essential parts of their education ought not entirely to depend on the caprice, or disposition, of their respective masters; especially as many of them have been apprenticed by lots from distant counties, and have been deserted by those, whse duty iwas to have protected them. In addition to this, something should also be done for the benefit of these children, to instruct and prepare them to support themselves in life, without thievery and prostitution, when the period of their apprenticeship expires at the age of 16.

It also seems to be expedient, that the age and conditions of

apprenticeship be regulated ;---that the hours of work be limited, and *night work* (so destructive to health and morals) entirely excluded ;---that a total separation take place between the boys and girls ;---that the works be liable to the periodical inspection of the magistrates, who should have power to order the regular whitewashing and cleaning, and the warming and ventilating of the work-rooms ; and who should receive quarterly or monthly reports, from each manufactory, of the number, the health, and the respective ages, of all the apprentices and other persons employed there.

Such are the regulations, which, upon a cursory view of the subject, appear to be proper, and to have a tendency to meliorate the condition, and to preserve the morals, of these unfortunate and neglected children. Other correctives and remedies may probably occur to those who possess more practical knowledge of the subject. Mr. Bernard concludes his benevolent strictures with adding that, as far as his enquiries had extended, he had reason to be satisfied, that almost all the owners of cotton mills will concur in thinking, that the preceding, or some similar regulations *ought to be enforced* by the legislature, for the protection of the children employed in those mills. In order therefore that something practicable and effectual may be done without injury to the interest of the manufacturers, he would suggest that the outline of any regulations proposed to be adopted, should be first communicated to them, so that they might state any objections, or amendments : and after a proper attention shall have been paid to their observations, he ventures boldly to express his confidence, that the measures will have the support of every one, who desires to promote the welfare and happiness of his fellow creatures, and the essential interests of virtue, morality, and religion, in this favoured country.

MISCELLANIES.

Enquiry into the Causes of the Decay of Wood, and the Means of preventing it, by Dr. PARRY.

(From the Eleventh Volume of the "Letters and Papers," selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society for the encouragement of Arts, Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce, p. 296.)

As our present relations with those countries in the North of Europe, whence we used to derive the principal part of the timber and deals consumed in building and for other purposes, are now from the situation of affairs, totally interrupted, it becomes a measure of no small importance, to consider how the deficiency in supply can most effectually be remedied or prevented. We have therefore selected this valuable paper, as being peculiarly interesting at the present crisis; and propose in a future number to consider the most effectual modes of procuring or preventing that destructive malady in timber, the DRY ROT, and to give some interesting communications on the present state of oak-timber in this country.

1. The power of wood in different forms to supply luxury, to promote science, and to guard and prolong human life, has made the means of preserving it from decay highly interesting to mankind. With this view various premiums have been offered by this and other economical societies. The object of the following discussion is to suggest the best means of prevention, chiefly by inquiring into the nature and sources of the evil against which it is intended to guard.

Wood, when killed by being separated from its root, is subject to gradual destruction from two causes---rotting, and the depredations of insects.

Of the rot there are two supposed kinds, as they affect wood, first, in the open air, or secondly, under cover.

The first is that which in the terms of our premium, Class VII. No. 3, is said to occur to "barn and other outside-doors, wea-

ther-boarding, gates, stiles, and implements of husbandry." To which, if there were any need of this minute specification, might have been added posts, rails, paling, water-shoots, and various other objects.

The second is well known under the name of the dry-rot, the cause and prevention of which are the subjects of a premium by the Society of Arts in London.

Animal and vegetable substances possess certain common properties and movements, which constitute what is called life. When that state ceases, and these properties and motions no longer exist, the bodies become subject to the chemical and mechanical laws of all other matter.

When perfectly dry, and in certain degrees of temperature, both seem to be scarcely capable of spontaneous decay. On this principle vast quantities of salmon are annually conveyed in a frozen state to London from the north of England and Scotland; and the inhabitants of the still more Northern regions constantly preserve their food by freezing, unchanged through the longest winters. The gelatinous and other soluble parts of animal substances, when extracted by boiling, and kept in a soft moist state, very readily putrefy. But if the same matter be dried by a gentle heat, and secluded from moisture and air by being kept in bottles or metallic cases, it will remain very long without decay. This is the theory of that well-known and useful substance, portable soup. In the burning climate of Africa, when it is intended to preserve a dead animal for food, all that is necessary is to cut the muscular parts into thin strips, from which, in a few hours, the heat of the sun exhales all moisture, reducing them to a substance like leather or horn, which proves to be unsusceptible of future decay from putrefaction. So also entire human bodies, buried in the arid sands of those countries, have often been found converted by exhalation and absorption of their natural moisture into a dry hard sort of mummy, incapable of any farther change from the agency of those causes, to which, in such situations, they are exposed.

Similar causes produce the same effects on wood. Even under less rigid circumstances of this kind, as in the roofs and other

timber of large buildings, it continues for an astonishing length of time unchanged; witness the timber of that noble edifice Westminster-hall, built by Richard II. in 1397; and the more extraordinary instance quoted by Dr. Darwin, in his ingenious work the Phytologia, of the gates of the old St. Peter's church in Rome, which were said to have continued without rotting from the time of the emperor Constantine to that of Pope Eugene IV. a period of eleven hundred years. On the other hand, wood will remain for ages with little change, when continually immersed in water, or even when deeply buried in the earth; as in the piles and buttresses of bridges, and in various morasses. These latter facts seem to shew, that if the access of atmospherical air is not necessary to the decay of wood, it is, at least, highly conducive to it.

In posts fixed in the ground and exposed to the weather, we constantly find that part soonest decay, which is just above or within the ground. So also where there is an accidental hole in an exposed surface, or any artificial cavity, as in a mortise and tenon, or the part where pales nearly touch the rails on which they are nailed, there the wood universally begins first to moulder away. The same thing happens with regard to horizontal rails themselves, which, when made of the same materials, rot much sooner than the pales which they support. These facts are very easily explained. They clearly shew, that the great cause of decay is the constant action of water aided by air, which most affects those points where it is most retained, but has less operation, where, as in the perpendicular pales, it chiefly runs off by its own gravity, so that the little which remains is easily and quickly abstracted by the co-operating power of the sun and wind.

The change which I am describing is the consequence of putrefactive fermentation; a chemical operation, in which the component parts of the wood form new combinations among themselves, and with the water which is essential to the process. The precise nature of these new compounds has not been ascertained; but, so far as they are known, consist of certain gases, or species of air, which fly off, and leave behind a powder, consisting

chiefly of carbon or charcoal, and the earth which entered into the original composition of the wood.

Besides this chemical change depending on water, that substance tends to destroy wood exposed to the open air by a mechanical operation. Every farmer is acquainted with the power of winter in mouldering down the earth of his fallows. It is equally well known that porous freestone splits and shivers during severe winters. These effects are produced by frost, which, acting on the water in the pores or interstices of these substances, expands it by conversion into ice, and thus bursts the minute cells in which it was contained. There can be no doubt that a similar operation takes place to a certain extent in exposed wood, and thus in some degree promotes its destruction.

It appears, then, that the contact of water and air are the chief causes of the decay of wood. If, therefore, any means can be devised, by which the access of moisture and air can be prevented, the wood is so far secure against decay. This principle may be illustrated by supposing a cylinder of dry wood to be placed in a glass tube or case, which it exactly fills, and the two ends of which are, as it is called, hermetically sealed, that is, entirely closed, by uniting the melted sides of each end of the tube. Who will doubt that such a piece of wood might remain in the open air a thousand years unchanged? Or let us take a still more apposite illustration of this fact; that of amber, a native bitumen, or resin, in which a variety of small flies, filaments of vegetables, and others of the most fragile substances, are seen imbedded, having been preserved from decay much longer probably than a thousand years, and with no apparent tendency to change for ten times that period. Let us see then if we cannot, by the exclusion of moisture and air, find means of virtually placing our timber in a case of glass or amber.

With this view, various expedients have been employed, of which the most common is covering the surface with paint; which is oil mixed with some substance capable of giving it the colour which we desire. It is well known that several of the oils, as those of linseed, hempseed, &c. become dry when thinly spread on any hard substance. The drying quality is much as-

sisted by their being previously boiled with certain metallic oxyds, more especially that of lead, litharge. The crust so formed is with difficulty penetrated by moisture or air. For this purpose drying oil is spread on silk or linen, in the manufacture of umbrellas; and will tolerably well succeed in confining hydrogen gas, or inflammable air, in the construction of air-balloons. Hence we see the mode in which the application of paint on wood serves to defend it against the causes of destruction.

When paint is employed within doors, it is customary to add to the oil, besides the colouring matter, some essential oil of turpentine, which not only makes it dry more readily, but, by giving it greater tenuity, causes it to flow more freely from the brush, and therefore to go farther in the work. For the same purposes I observe it forms a part of the paint used on wood and iron work in the open air; but, as it appears to me, most improperly: for I have remarked that on rubbing wood painted white, and long exposed to the weather, the white-lead has come off in a dry powder like whiting; as if the vehicle which glued it to the wood had been decomposed and lost, leaving only the pigment behind: and I have been much inclined to suspect that this has arisen from the oil having been too much *pened*, as the workmen call it, or having its thickness and tenacity too much diminished by a superabundance of the oil of turpentine. In this state it may, in various ways, be more readily acted on by water and air. We know that the properties of what are called unctuous or fat oils are much changed by the admixture of the volatile or essential oils. On this principle we succeed in getting grease out of woollen cloths by oil of turpentine; but whether the same change is produced on the drying oils, I have not learned.

It appears then, that these drying oils either by themselves, or boiled with metallic oxyds, will form a varnish on wood; but it may be questioned how far the colouring matters, with which they are usually mixed, contribute to increase their preservative power. I do not, however, deny that they may be serviceable in this and other views. They might be supposed to enable the

oil to lay firmer hold, as it were, on the wood; and they may serve to increase the thickness of the defensive covering. The first of these points is of some importance; for we observe that the paint on street-doors, which is become thick by frequent incrustation, is apt, from the strong influence of the summer's sun, to separate from the polished wood beneath, and rise in large blisters; probably in consequence of a greater expansion in the crust itself than in the subjacent wood. Here, therefore, the colouring matter of the paint fails to produce the desired effect; and as to the second end, or that of increasing the thickness of the covering, that may, probably, be much more effectually accomplished than by the mere addition of pigments, some of which are capable of chemical decomposition, and all are costly. This purpose an ingenious artist has of late attempted to answer, by recommending an admixture of road-dust: and for that and other means of reducing the price of paints, has obtained a premium from the London Society of Arts. However just the general principle in this case may be, the application is somewhat unphilosophical; unless it shall be found, which will scarcely be admitted, that dust of every chemical and mechanical quality will equally or sufficiently answer the intended purpose.

Some material of this kind, selected with greater precision, may however undoubtedly be useful; and none I think promises more fairly than siliceous or flinty sand, which, so far as we know, is absolutely indestructible, and which may be easily procured from the sea-shore, and from the currents of the clear rivers and roads in Berkshire and other counties abounding with siliceous stones. Sand from the sea must first be cleared from all saline impregnations by washing in several waters, and any sand may be obtained of the fineness desired, by mixing it with water in a tub, and after having stirred the whole well together, pouring out, in a longer or shorter time, the muddy water, from which the sand will settle by its own gravity, in a state fit for use when dried.

(To be continued).

ANALYSIS OF BOOKS,

Published on Subjects connected with Commerce, Trade, or Manufactures.

OBSERVATIONS *on the Influence of Soil and Climate upon Wool;* from which is deduced a certain and easy method of improving the quality of English Clothing Wools, and preserving the health of sheep, with hints for the management of sheep after shearing; an inquiry into the structure, growth, and formation of wool and hair; and remarks on the means by which the Spanish breed of sheep may be made to preserve the best qualities of its fleece uncharged in different climates, by Robert Bakewell. With occasional notes and remarks by the Rt. Hon. Lord Somerville. 8vo. pp. 157. Price 6s. 6d. Harding, London, 1808.

The object of this work is stated by its author to be, "not to censure, or to supply the defects of other writers, but to direct the attention of wool-growers to objects of practical utility, and to point out the means, by which the value of English clothing wools may be greatly increased, and an annual saving to a very large amount in the stock of sheep may be obtained." (Pref. p. VI.) And as "descriptions of the operations and processes of different manufactures, or of the materials on which they are employed, are seldom written by persons practically acquainted with these subjects,"—we with pleasure announce the present manual, which is equally valuable to the wool-grower and the wool-stapler.

In chap. 1. Mr. Bakewell discusses the soft and hard qualities of wool, and the great difference in the value of cloth made from these wools, although each sort may be equally fine; and points out the distinction between hair and wool.---Having early on his introduction into the wool business, noticed a remarkable difference in the softness of wools equally fine, but which were produced in different districts: Mr. B was led to believe "that the herbage of each district derived from the difference of soil, some peculiar properties, which gave to it, as the food of sheep, the power of affecting that process of the animal economy by which wool is produced."

"The soils more favourable to this soft quality were, first, the argillaceous; next the siliceous; and it was well known, that calcareous soils, whether limestone or chalk, produce wools of a contrary quality, remarkable for their harshness to the touch. In proportion as the above earths preponderate in a loose state near the surface of different soils, their effects may be detected, whatever be the breed of sheep from which the wool be shorn." p. 5.

These remarks on the effects of chalk upon wool are limited to chalk alone by Lord Somerville, who considers them as inapplicable to limestone soils in general. "Lime," his Lordship observes, certainly may be burnt from chalk as well as from the limestone: as chalk, it is conveyed into the fleece by contact in its natural state; but limestone, if it does not lie deep below the surface, as is usually the case, is a hard and clean stone, and can communicate nothing to the wool until it is rendered into lime by the strongest effect of fire. This doctrine militates also against the whole of our practice in the western counties. The pile of all my Merino wool, even of the pure blood, is publicly admitted to be improved; it has been grown constantly on a limestone soil, and the surface of the land manured with lime in each course of cropping, and to the extent of 100 bushels per acre of the best popple-lime, the quality of which has been ascertained by Mr. Davy, to whom specimens were sent; it has been treated on in his public lectures, and its quality ranks among the strongest of our manuring lime. As the author speaks so positively of the effect of the limestone on wools, we may conclude that the limestone of Derbyshire and the adjoining counties does produce this effect."

Mr. Bakewell conceives that the distinction between wool and hair, is more artificial than natural, and he supports this assertion by reference to various facts drawn from the animal kingdom, which we have not room to notice.

Chap. 2. "On the causes which produce the hard qualities of wool in many parts of this island." These causes are principally, the chemical or mechanical action of the particles of the soil or the surface of the fleece. In chap. 3. The author discusses at some length "the means by which the soft quality of wool may be preserved in every situation, and the effects of climate and soil counteracted where they are unfavourable to

this quality;—the preservation of sheep by the same means, cutaneous distempers, from the inclemency of the climate, and from the sudden change of temperature after shearing." These are attained by greasing the animals, which practice Mr. B. strenuously advocates, proving its antiquity as well as its usefulness by details of facts, for which we reluctantly refer to his work, as this article would otherwise be extended beyond our confined limits. The result of his practice, however, may be comprised in the following positions, distinct from the recital of facts by which they are supported. Mr. B. infers

1st, That hair differs from wool, by the greater degree of hardness and elasticity of its fibres.

2d, That some wools resemble hair in this quality more than other wools which are much coarser.

3d, That the hard quality found in some wool, prevents it from making cloth of the same value as the softer wools, if the former are considerably finer than the latter.

4th, That the application of unctuous matter sufficiently soft and tenacious to cover and remain upon the fleece, will defend it from the action of the soil, and is found to produce the soft quality of wool, so desirable to the manufacturer.

Hence the greased wools of Northumberland and Yorkshire, possess a superior degree of softness to any ungreased wools in the kingdom.

Hence sheep that have received the benefit of this practice, and are driven into other counties not remarkable for soft wools, still preserve the distinguishing softness of their fleece. Hence we learn the reason why ointments, when casually employed to cure some disease of the animal, have also generally been found beneficial to the wool.

If these facts and inferences be admitted, we may also infer, that an improved method of greasing fine-woolled sheep should be adopted in every part of the kingdom, and that it would greatly improve the quality of the wool, and annually save many thousand sheep from perishing by the severity of the weather. p. 63.

The fourth chapter treats on "Improved methods of washing sheep—on the means of preventing the deterioration of wool in the Spanish breed of sheep—On the qualities and defects of the finest fleeces from Saxony—On the influence which pasture, heat—cold and moisture—and the different effects of the climate of Spain and England upon the fleece."

The principal object, worthy of note in this chapter, is the

washing of sheep in tubs with warm water, agreeably to the Swedish practice; which Mr. Bakewell recommends in order to remove all objections against *greased wools.*

It would be desirable that the Spanish and mixed breeds of sheep were also washed in this way, because it is not possible to cleanse the fleece by the usual practice of immersion in a river, without keeping the animal a long time in the water, and thereby endangering its health. Indeed, I do not think the Spanish fleeces can be cleansed by the usual mode of washing, on account of the closeness of the pile. Were the Spanish sheep in this country washed before shearing as clean as the English, the value of their wool would be better ascertained by the wool buyer, and a more general competition of purchasers would always ensure a fair price for the article.

The extra labour required to wash sheep in tubs with warm water, and lees or soda, would, I apprehend, be amply repaid, were the water of the first and second washings carried out and applied as a manure. The quantity of rich animal soap it would contain, must make it one of the most fertilizing applications which could possibly be used. The greased wool would require a greater quantity of soda to cleanse it, than that of the Spanish, or mixed breeds, where no ointment had been applied. I should annex Baron Schultz's account of the Swedish manner of washing sheep: I think some improvements upon it will suggest themselves to the intelligent wool-grower.

"Before the shearing, the wool with us is almost universally washed upon the sheep. Some persons wash the sheep in the open sea, or in running water, but this is never so clean, as when the sheep are first washed in a large tub, with one part clear lee, two parts lukewarm water, with a small quantity of urine; and then in another tub, with less lee in the water; after which the sheep are washed, laying them always on their back, with their heads up, in a tub with clean water; and lastly, there is poured on the sheep, standing on the ground, a sufficient quantity of water, which is as much as possible squeezed out of the wooll. The sheep are afterwards driven into an unpastured adjoining meadow, and remain there (to prevent their soiling themselves in the sheep-house) a day and night, not only till they be dry, which in good dry weather happens within the third day, but also, if bad weather does not threaten, some days longer. Some persons wash their sheep twice, which I also once tried, but the wool became rougher in consequence of it, and in fact of a greyer appearance. The great quantity of grease which the finest Spanish wool contains at the first washing, mixes with the lee water, and makes it quite soft and soapy; but this grease is wanting in the second washing, so that the water is not in the least softened. If the first washing be well performed, the wool is by that means several per cent. cleaner than the foreign wool that is imported, which has not been washed after the shearing."—p. 72.

As a means of preventing the deterioration of wool in the Spanish breed, Mr. B. recommends a sedulous regard to the *purity of the breed*—to observe that the *fleece* be covered by nature with a *copious yolk*, and where this is deficient, to supply it by art—to *keep the sheep dry*, and to regulate the *quantity* of nourishment given.

In the fifth and last chapter, the author discusses at considerable length the growth and formation of wool—hair—and silk—the felting quality of wool and hair—the defects of wool—and hints for the improvement of British wool. From this part of the work, we could select many valuable passages, which want of room compels us to omit.—An Appendix and Postcript are subjoined, containing supplementary observations connected with the subject of this volume; the character of which we cannot, perhaps, better describe, than by adopting the language of Lord Somerville; whose valuable notes on different parts of the work amply merit the consideration of every attentive wool-grower and stapler.—"This treaties," says his lordship, has much brevity and much ingenuity to recommend it; regardless of profit, or indeed any remuneration for his labour, the author has no other object than to call the public attention to this neglected, but most important branch of rural economy."

MONTHLY RETROSPECT.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

THE attention of the Public has chiefly been directed towards Spain; where numerous bands of patriots have associated in defending their natural rights against French force, and French tyranny. An assembly has been convened at Oviedo, whither deputies resorted from the provinces most actively occupied in opposition to the French; whose influence and personal safety were much diminished. Two of these deputies, the Viscount Materosa, and Don Diego de la Vega have reached this country; and have been accredited by Ministers, who have liberated and sent home 2000, part of the Spanish prisoners in this country, together with ample supplies of ammunition: in addition to which an extensive armament is fitting out at Cork, to be conducted by Sir A. Wellesley, in aid of the patriot Spaniards. The intercourse

with the two countries is re-opened through the medium of Corunna, whither it is in contemplation to dispatch mails regularly every month, in the event of the patriots succeeding in the liberation of their country. In the mean time, the two kings of Spain, and the royal family are closely confined prisoners at Bayonne.

Later intelligence furnishes but little additional information respecting the proceedings of the patriots in Spain. It is generally understood that the transports under General Spencer's command have returned from Cadiz: and that Admiral Purvis's negociation with the Spaniards at that port had terminated unfavourably.—Joseph Bonaparte, it is rumoured, is to be the new sovereign of this country.

Humbled, or at least awed, by the power and influence of Bonaparte, *Russia* continues her hostility with Britain: the brave Swedes have expelled the Russian forces from the island of Aland, and have obtained other advantages against these powerful enemies: but these are counterbalanced by the loss of Sweaburg, the garrison of which (8000 in number) has been taken by the Russians: in different actions with whom they have also lost 4000 more; in all 12,000 men. *Denmark* remains in a state of humiliating subjection to Bonaparte, to whom the tardiness of her military preparations has given great offence.

In America, the popular ferment runs very high against this country, and, especially in New York, the most violent party spirit prevails. Perjury the most shameless on the part of the electors in the different wards, into which that city is divided, has prevailed, in order to return to congress, members attached to the Jeffersonian, or Jacobinical interest.

The electorate of Hanover continues to suffer under the accumulated extortions of French Tyranny. From recent private intelligence, we learn that ruin the most deplorable, and misery the most remediless prevail through every class: families and individuals who had hitherto, by the most rigid economy, contrived to support themselves with decency, are now so completely reduced as to have no other prospect before them, but to drag on a lingering existence, that must ultimately terminate in starving. From such a view, we turn with grateful sentiments to the consideration of our .

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS.

These, indeed, present but little which is particularly worth recording. The two houses of parliament have been very busily occupied with a variety of bills of a public and private nature, among which we may briefly notice the Assessed Tax Act. The acts for regulating the trade to the Brasils, and also the Cape Trade, the Sugar Distillation Bill, the

Local Militia, New Stamp Duty, Promissory Note, Stipendiary Curates, White Herring Fishery, Expiring Laws Bill, &c. &c.

On the 17th inst. the House of Commons resolved itself into a committee of supply, Mr. Wharton in the chair: when

Mr. Percival moved, "That 25,000*l.* be granted towards defraying the expence of building the Royal Military Asylum, for the year 1808," which motion was agreed to.

The following sums were voted.—

495*l.* to discharge arrears due to the Duchess of Gloucester, at the time of her decease.

20,000*l.* for the building of the Military Asylum, at Sandhurst, in the county of Berks, for the year 1808; and

20,000*l.* compensation to Philip Martin, Esq. for loss sustained in Virginia, in America, as representative of Lord Fairfax.

The report was ordered to be received this day, June 25th.

WAYS AND MEANS.

The house in a committee of ways and means,

Resolved, that an excise duty be charged on every gallon of spirits imported from Ireland, of 8s. 2¼d. distilled from grain;

And 8s. on every gallon of spirits distilled from sugar.

Also, a countervailing duty of 8s. on every gallon of spirits exported from Scotland to Ireland from grain:

And 5s. on every gallon exported from Scotland to Ireland, of spirits distilled from sugar.

The report was ordered to be received on this day, June 25th, 1808.

COMMERCIAL REPORT.

June 27, 1808.

In consequence of the new act for regulating our commerce with the Brasils, which has just received his Majesty's Assent; an abstract of which will appear in our next—considerable activity has prevailed. Shipments have been made to a large amount, consisting principally of Manchester goods, and articles of hardware. Proposals have also been issued, and subscriptions paid in, towards forming an association of merchants trading to the Brasils. The books were to close on Saturday last, the 25th inst. and a meeting of the proprietors, it is understood, will shortly be convened, to appoint a Committee, and propose regulations for the management of the company's concerns. Of the benefit to be derived from this new channel of trade, sanguine hopes are entertained: and, the apprehension least the Brasilian cotton should supplant the produce of our West India colonies, will doubtless be obviated by the wisdom of the legislature.

A suspension of the embargo is stated, by private letters from Holland, to have taken place with regard to American vessels; all of which have been permitted to sail throughout the Dutch Posts, on giving bond to treble the value of the cargo, that they would not come to any port belonging to this country. In America, numerous *Bankruptcies*, have taken place, which have created considerable discontent.

At home, little comparatively has occurred—Among the manufacturers at Manchester and its vicinity considerable dissatisfaction had displayed itself by acts of open violence: the refractory artisans destroying the looms, &c. But in consequence of the interference of the civil and military power, these tumults had subsided: and it was hoped they were entirely terminated. On the 20th inst. large numbers of commercial people assembled in Manchester, where they not only stopped all the looms which they found at work, but intercepted every Weaver coming in with finished pieces, or going out with fresh work, forcing the workmen to return to the place whence they came. Considerable bodies assembled again on the 21st. but indicated a peaceable disposition. Parties of the 4th Dragoons patrolled the streets during the day.

At the honourable East India company's sales of tea, which commenced on the 8th and closed on the 23d. instant, were sold 3,033 chests Bohea, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3½d per lb.—49,553 chests Congou, 3s. ¼d. to 3s. 8d. per lb.—2695 chests Campoi, 3s. 3½d. to 3s. 7d. per lb.—5295 chests Souchong, 3s. 4½d. to 4s. 6d. per lb.—1139 chests Twankay, 3s. 5d. to 4s. 7d. per lb.—1576 chests Hyson Skin, 3s. 6d. to 4s. per lb.—4791 chests Hyson, 4s. 6¼d. per lb.

Bohea Teas have sold 4d. per lb. including duty, higher than last sale, low Congous, 1d. dearer, and fine do. 2d. cheaper, Twankays and Hyson Skins, much the same, and Hyson, 4d. per lb. lower. Teas are thought to be purchased at very safe prices, and are expected to go off quickly.

The company's cotton sale 2987 bales of Bengal cotton were sold from 8¾d to 14¾d.—and 40 bales of Bourbon, at 2s. 5d. to 2s. 5¼d. per lb.

Sugars have experienced an advance of price in consequence of the proposed distillery of Rum. A fleet of 127 sail have safely arrived from the West Indies, after 38 days passage: but several of our East Indiamen have been captured by the French cruisers in India, during Sir Edward Pellew's expedition to Batavia.

Since the preceding remarks were written, interesting intelligence of the capture of Batavia, and of the further success of the Spanish Patriots, has arrived, too late for insertion in this Number.—The China fleet have also safely arrived in the Downs—(June 29, 1808.)

BANKRUPTCIES ENLARGED.

Casson, G. Halifax, merchant, from June 21 to Aug. 9.

Middlecoat, N. Tregony, innkeeper, from June 21 to July 9.

Gresswell, R. of Stamford, innkeeper, from June 25 to July 25.

Williams, W. of Park-street, Islington, builder, from June 14, to Aug. 2.

Lister, P. Slater-ing, Yorkshire, cotton-spinner, Manchester.

BANKRUPTCIES SUPERSEDED.

Brown, W. and Wale, T. Manchester, linen drapers,

Davies, G. P. and Mackie, A. Philpot-lane, coffee merchants.

Kenifick, P. Bristol, coal merchant.

Round, J. Pelsall, Wolverhampton, factor.

Satterthwaite, F. Kendal, farmer.

Vaughan, G. sen. and Mackilwain, Snatchwood, Monmouthshire, coal merchant.

BANKRUPTS.

Annis, T. Southend, near Lewisham, Kent, miller. *Att.* Mr. Williams, Staples-inn.

Aston, J. Manchester, liquor merchant. *Att.* Mr. Law, Manchester, and Mr. Hurd, Temple.

Beaton, E. and H. Beaton, late of Portsmouth, butchers. *Att.* Mr. Callaway, Portsmouth.

Bell, J. Highgate, underwriter. *Att.* Mr. Jackson, Garden-court Temple.

Briggs, R. Liverpool, corn merchant. *Att.* Mr. Sutton, Liverpool, and Mr. Blackstock, St. Mildred's court.

Buckhan, J. Newcastle-under-Lyme, Staffordshire, liquor merchant. *Att.* Whally, Staples-inn.

Bullen, R. Weymouth, butcher, *Att.* Bigg, Hatton garden,

Cass, J. Scarborough, York, cabinet-maker. *Att.* Messrs. Bousfield, Bouverie street, Fleet street, London. and Woodall, jun. Scarborough.

Charlton, C. East Farleigh, Kent, yeoman. *Att.* Burr and Pope, Maidstone, and Debary and Derby, Temple.

Cocking, R. Golgate, Lancashire, hatter. *Att.* Blakelock and Makinson, Elm court, Temple.

Cohen, M. Devonshire street, Queen square, Middlesex, exchange-broker. *Att.* Mills, Ely place,

Cotten, T. late of Threadneedle street, London, but now of the Grove, Hackney, Middlesex, insurance broker. *Att.* Bourdillon and Hewitt, Little Friday street, Cheapside.

Crump, T. Westminster road, Surry, tinman. *Att.* Mangnall, Warwick square, Newgate street.

Danson, G. and J. Walmsley, Liverpool, merchants. *Att.* Stanistreet and Eden, Liverpool, and Windle, John street, Bedford row, London.

Davey, J. Curtain road, Shoreditch, London, carpenter. *Att.* Bond, East India chambers, Leadenhall street.

Davis, S. the younger, late of Ilford, Essex, shopkeeper. *Att.* Day and Hamerton, Cullum street, Fenchurch street, London.

Dawson, J. Aldgate, High street, London, linen draper, *Att.* Nind, Great Prescot street, Goodman's fields.

Dearing T. and M. Forster, Litchfield street, Soho, Middlesex, hotel and tavern keepers. *Att.* Oakley, Martin's lane, Cannon street.

Delahoyde, C. Esher, Surry, and of the Haymarket, Middlesex, rectifying distiller. *Att.* Humphries, Clement's inn.

Delany, J. Liverpool, draper. *Att.* Davis, Liverpool, and Meadowcroft and Stanley, Grey's inn, London.

Dryer, B. Exeter, floor-cloth manufacturer. *Att.* Mortimer, Exeter, and Williams & Darke, Prince's street, Bedford row, London.

Dunn, T. Bristol, salesman. *Att.* Price and Williams, Lincoln's inn, London; and Strickland, Bristol.

Elam, J. Brighthelmstone, Sussex, carpenter. *Att.* Everett, Brighthelmstone, and Wilde, jun. Castle street, Falcon square.

Falconer, J. Bernard street, Russell square, dealer. *Att.* Mayhew, Symond's-inn, Chancery lane.

Gilbert, W. Portsea, Southampton, cabinet maker. *Att.* Sandys and Horton, Crane court, Fleet street, London, and Soaper, Portsea.

Goodenough W. late of Hampstead road, Middlesex, (but now a prisoner in the custody of the Marshall of the King's Bench Prison. *Att.* Henson, Dorset street, Salisbury square, Fleet street.

Gore, W. Aldgate, London, Manchester warehouse-man. *Att.* Courteen, College hill.

Hallett, W. Hereford, cordwainer. *Att.* Chilton, Exchequer Office, Lincoln's inn.

Harrison, J. Eller Carr, Yorkshire, worsted and cotton spinner. *Att.* Exley and Stocker, Furnival's inn, London, and Metcalfe, Kighley

Harsnett S. Manchester, leather seller. *Att.* Hewitt, Manchester, and Ellis, Cursitor street, Chancery lane, London,

Haynes, T. Gloucester, pin manufacturer. *Att.* Jenkins, James, Abbott, and Co. New inn, London, and Wilton, Gloucester.

Hibbert, T. Liverpool, wine merchant. *Att.* Windle, John street, Bedford row, and Cobit, Liverpool.

Hince, C. Little Castle street, Leicester square, tailor. *Att.* Freme, Great Queen street, Lincoln's inn fields.

Hirst, J. Suffolk lane, Cannon street, broker. *Att.* Sudlow, Monument yard.

Houghton, W. Liverpool, Lacaster, merchant. *Att.* Stanistreet and Eden, Leigh street, Liverpool, and Windle, John street, Bedford row, London.

Huffman, B. Battersea, Surry. fellmonger. *Att.* Broad, Union street, Southwark.

Hullah, R. A. Moorfields, London, auctioneer. *Att.* Symonds Trickey, Howland street, Fitzroy square.

Jackson, W. B. Exeter, merchant.

Jones, H. late of Northwich, Chester, draper *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor-street, London.

Jones, P. Norfolk-row, Lambeth, hawker. *Att.* Keen, Furnival's-inn

Kennifeck, P. Bristol, merchant. *Att.* Smith, Bristol.

Lee, J. Islington, Middlesex, timber-merchant. *Att.* Jackson, Hatton-garden, London.

Lee, S. Bradford, Yorkshire, cotton-manufacturer. *Att.* Edge, King's Bench-walks, Inner Temple, London; and Brogden, Bradford.

Lomas, J. Sen. and J. jun. and J. H Leicester, wool-staplers. *Att.* Taylor, Southampton-buildings.

Lowe, W. Drury-lane, cabinet-maker. *Att.* Messrs. Nedd and Fladgate, Norfolk-street, Strand.

Machan, G. Huddersfield, Yorkshire, grocer, London.

M'Clellan, W. of Preston, Lancaster, linen-draper. *Att.* Messrs. Blanchard and Carr, Preston; and Messrs. Blakelock and Makinson, Temple, London.

Mason, E. of Great Swan alley, Coleman street, London, carpenter. *Att.* Messrs. Palmer, Tomlinson, and Thompson, Copthall-court, Throgmorton-street.

May, J. of Dedham, Essex, maltster. *Att.* Messrs. Denton and Parker, Field-court, Gray's Inn, London.

Middleton, T. Maiden-lane, Battlebridge, Middlesex, blue-manufacturer. *Att.* Hackett, Chancery-lane, London.

Moses, M. Rosemary-lane, salesman. *Att.* Isaacs, Mitre-court, Aldgate.

Namby, C. Great Grimsby, Lincolnshire, tallow chandler. *Att.* Kearsey, Bishopsgate Within, London, and Lloyd, Kingston-upon-Hull.

Nelson, J. Leeds, woolstapler. *Att.* Wilson, Greville-street, Hatton-garden London; and Coupland, Leeds.

Parr, R. of Watling street, London, haberdasher. *Att.* Fisher, Bread-street, Cheapside, London.

Pope, W. Westbury-upon-Severn, Gloucestershire, dealer in pigs. *Att.* Lucas, Newnham, and Edmunds, Lincoln's-Inn, London.

Postles, R. Long lane, Smithfield, victualler. *Att.* Ireland, Staple's-Inn.

Price, G. Tottenham-court-road, liquor-merchant. *Att.* Messrs. Naylor, Great Newport Street.

Rackstraw, P. Tottenham-court-road, cabinet maker. *Att.* Griffith, Featherstone-buildings, London.

Railton, I. Egremont, Cumberland, mercer and draper. *Att.* Wordsworth, Cat-gill-hall, Egremont.

Rayner, R. Birmingham, button-maker. *Att.* Messrs. Lee and Corrie, Birmingham; and Alexander, Bedford-row, London.

The remainder of Bankrupts, and the Dividends in our next.

	£.			to £.		
American pot-ash, per cwt.	4	6	0	4	10	0
Ditto pearl	3	14	0	4	2	0
Barilla	3	10	0	3	12	0
Brandy, Coniac, gal.	1	2	0	1	3	0
Ditto Spanish	0	19	6	1	0	0
Camphire, refined--lb.	0	5	2	0	5	6
Do unrefined--cwt.	14	10	0	15	0	0
Cochineal, garbled--lb.	1	0	0	1	14	0
Ditto, East-India	0	3	3	0	6	0
Coffee, fine . cwt.	5	13	0	6	8	0
Ditto ordinary	3	3	0	4	0	0
Cott. Wool, Surin. lb.	0	2	0	0	2	2
Ditto Jamaica	0	1	6	0	1	9
Ditto Smyrna	0	1	3	0	1	5
Ditto East-India	0	2	2	0	2	6
Currants, Zant--cwt.	4	11	0	4	15	0
Deals, Dantz.--piece	1	12	0	2	7	0
Do. Petersb.--H.	35	0	0		—	
Do. Stockholm	49	0	0	51	0	0
Elephants' Teeth	31	0	0	34	0	0
——Scrivell.	20	0	0	22	0	0
Flax, Riga——ton	110	0	0	115	0	0
Do. Petersburgh	110	0	0	112	0	0
Galls, Turkey--cwt.	6	15	0	7	0	0
Geneva, Hollands--gal.	1	4	6	1	5	6
Ditto English	0	8	3	0	12	0
Gum Arab. Turk. cwt.	12	10	0	16	0	0
Ditto, Sandrach	6	10	0	8	0	0
Ditto, Tragacanth	26	0	0	27	10	0
Ditto, Seneca	5	10	0	5	15	0
Hemp, Riga—ton	106	0	0	108	0	0
Do. Petersburgh	106	0	0	108	0	0
Indigo, Caracca—lb.	0	9	9	0	11	6
Ditto, East India	0	3	9	0	11	6
Iron, Brit. bars--ton	18	0	0		—	
Ditto, Swedish	26	0	0	27	0	0
Ditto, Archangel	none				—	
Norway .	24	0	0	25	0	0
Lead in pigs--fod.	31	0	0		—	
Ditto red—ton	30	0	0		—	
Ditto white	50	0	0		—	

	£.			to £.		
Logwood chips—ton	11	10	0	12	15	0
Madder, Dutch crop—cwt	7	10	0	8	10	0
Mahogany—ft.	0	1	8	0	2	4
Oak plk. Dantz.-last	11	0	0	12	0	0
Ditto American	none				—	
Oil, Lucca--25 gal. jar	30	0	0	32	0	0
Do. spermaceti-ton	99	10	0		—	
Do. whale .	28	15	0		—	
Do. Florence-½ chest	4	4	0	4	10	0
Pitch, Stockholm-cwt.	0	14	0	0	15	0
Quicksilver—lb.	0	4	8		—	
Raisins, bloom—cwt.	6	10	0	7	0	0
Rice, Carolina	2	5	0	2	8	0
Ditto East-India	none				—	
Rum, Jamaica—gal.	0	4	9	0	6	6
Ditto, Leeward I.	0	3	9	0	4	6
Saltpetre, East-I.-cwt.	3	6	0	3	7	6
Shellack . .	5	0	0	10	0	0
Silk, thrown, Ital.--lb.	1	18	0	2	10	0
Silk, raw, ditto	1	4	0	1	13	6
Ditto, China	1	11	0	1	18	0
Ditto, Beng. novi	1	1	0	2	3	0
Ditto, Organzine	1	11	0	1	19	0
Tallow, English—cwt.	4	4	0		—	
Ditto, Russia, white	4	10	0		—	
Ditto, yellow	4	15	0	4	16	0
Tar, Stockholm—bar.	2	4	0		—	
Tin, in blocks—cwt.	6	3	0		—	
Tobacco, Maryl.—lb.	0	0	10	0	1	2
Ditto, Virginia	0	0	6	0	0	9½
Wax, Guinea—cwt.	10	15	0	13	10	0
Whale-fins—ton	28	0	0	30	0	0
Wine, Red pt.--pipe	90	0	0	100	0	0
Ditto, Lisbon	87	0	0	90	0	0
Ditto, Madeira	80	0	0	120	0	0
Ditto, Vidonia	75	0	0	78	0	0
Ditto, Calcavalla	90	0	0	100	0	0
Ditto Sherry—butt	92	0	0	100	0	0
Ditto, Mountain	75	0	0	80	0	0
Do. claret—hogs.	70	0	0	90	0	0

PRICE OF STOCKS, JUNE 25.

Bank Stock	
3 per Ct. Re. Ann.	68
3 per Ct. Cons. ——	
Ditto for Ac.	69¼
4 per Ct. Cons.	83 7-8th
5 per Ct. Ann ——	
5 per Ct. 1797 ——	
Bank Long Ann.	18 5 8ths 11-16ths
Bank Short Ann. ——	
Im 3 per Cts Ann.	67
India Stock ——	
Omnium 2 pr.	
3½d. Exch. Bills 6 pr.	
Irish 5 per cent. ——	

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

Amsterdam	36	1	Bilboa .		40⅞
Ditto at sight	35	5	Leghorn		9¼
Rotterdam, c.f.	11	4	Naples .		42
Hamburgh	34	9	Genoa .		45½
Altona	34	10	Venice, n. C.		52
Paris	23	16	Lisbon .		60
Ditto, 2 us.	24		Oporto .		67
Bordeaux	24		Dublin .		11
Cadiz	41		Cork .		11¼
Madrid	41				

Agio B. of Holland, 5½ per cent.

PRICE OF HOPS.

BAGS.					PockETS.				
Kent . .	4l.	0s.	to 5l.	0s.	Kent . .	4l.	12s.	to 6l.	0s.
Sussex . .	4l.	0s.	to 4l.	12s.	Sussex . .	4l.	10s.	to 5l.	5s.
Essex . .	4l.	0s.	to 5l.	0s.	Farnham .	6l.	0s.	to 9l.	0s.

To Bengal, Madras, or China	6*l.*
Ditto out and home	12*gs.*
Senegambia	10*gs.*
Madeira	6 *gs.* ret 3*l.*
Windward and Leeward Islands	8 *gs.* ret 4*l.*
Jamaica	8 *gs.* ret. 4*l.*
South Whale Fishery and back	20*gs.*
Un. States of Am. (Brit. ships)	10*gs.* ret. 5*l.*
Ditto (American ships)	6*gs.*
Malaga and places adjacent	10*gs.* ret. 5*l.*
Salonica, Gallipoli, &c.	20*gs.* ret. 10*l.*
Lisbon and Oporto	12*gs.* ret. 6*l.*
Riga, Revel, Narva, or Petersb.	8*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Brazil and South America	8*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Carron, Leith, Perth, and Aberdeen	1½ *gs.*
Glasgow	4*gs.*
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Newry, Belfast, and Londonderry	3*gs.*
Limerick, Galway, or Sligo	4*gs.*
Portsm. Spith. Poole, or Isle of Wight	1½*gs.*
Weymouth, Exeter, Dartm. or Plym.	1½*gs.*
Bristol, Wales, Chester, Liverp. Whith.	2½*gs.*
Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull, Newcastle, &c.	1½*gs.*
Alderney, Guernsey, or Jersey	2*gs.*
Inverness, Shetland, Orkney Islands	1½*gs.*
Tonningen (neutrals)	—
Gottenburg, Christiana, &c.	4*gs.* ret. 2*l.*
Stockholm, &c.	8*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Musquito Shore, Honduras, &c.	10*gs.*
Newfoundl. Coast of Labradore,	8*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Cape G. H. or St. Helena (Comp. ships)	4*gs.*
Liverpool Bristol, &c. to Dublin, Waterford, or Cork	1½*gs.* 2½*l.*
Lisbon or Oporto	12*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Gibraltar	8*gs.* ret. 3*l.*
Madeira	6*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Jamaica or Leward Islands	8*gs.* ret.
Un. States of America (Brit. ships)	Do.
Ditto (American ships)	10*gs.*
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, &c.	
To London	4*gs.* ret 2*l.*
Lisbon and Oporto	8*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
United States of America (Brit. ships)	10*gs.*
Ditto (American ships)	5*gs.*
West Indies	8*gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Liverpool or Chester	20*l.*
The Baltic, to Yarmouth, Hull, &c.	—
Bristol, Lancast. Dublin, &c.	—
Poole and *Dart.—Exeter & Plym.* to Newfoundland	4*gs.*
Newfoundland to Jamaica, and Leeward Islands	25*gs.*
To Lisbon or Oporto	10*gs.* ret. 5*l.*
To any one port in the Unit. Kingd.	10*gs.* ret. 5*l.*
Jamaica to the U. States of America	10*gs.*
To Quebec, Montreal, Newfoundland	12*gs.*
To any one port in the Unit. Kg.	20*gs.* ret. 10*l.*
Windw. & Leew. Isl. to Un. States Am.	12*gs.*
East Indies to London	12*gs.*

PRICE OF MEAT.—Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.

Beef	4*s.*	4*d.* to 5*s.* 6*d.*	Veal	4*s.*	8*d.* to 6*s.* 0*d.*
Mutton	4*s.*	4*d.* to 5*s.* 4*d.*	Pork	4*s.*	8*d.* to 5*s.* 4*d.*
		Lamb 5*s.* 0*d* to 7*s.* 0*d.*			

Newgate and Leadenhall Markets, (by the Carcass).

Beef	3*s.*	8*d.* to 4*s.* 8*d.*	Veal	4*s.*	0*d.* to 5*s.* 8*d.*
Mutton	3*s.*	8*d.* to 4*s.* 8*d.*	Pork	4*s.*	8*d.* to 5*s.* 4*d.*
		Lamb 4*s.* 0*d.* to 6*s.* 8*d.*			

PRICE OF LEATHER.

Butts, 50 to 56lbs. each	18½	to	20½ per lb.
Dressing Hides	17	to	18
Crop Hides for cutting, 45 to 40lbs.	19	to	21½
Calf Skins, 30 to 40lbs	26	to	32
Ditto 50 to 70lbs	35	to	39
Ditto 70 to 80lbs	33	to	35

TALLOW.—London Average per stone of 8lb.
Yellow Soap, —*s.* to 112*s.*—Mottled, 122*s.*—Curd, 126*s.*
Price of Candles, per doz. 14*s.* 0*d.*—Moulds, 15*s.* 0*d.*

The Average Prices of Navigable Canal, Dock Stock, Fire Office Shares, &c. in June 1808, at the Office of Mr. Scott, 28, New Bridge Street, Blackfriars, London.

The Trent and Mersey, or Grand Trunk Navigation, 980*l.* to 1000*l.* per share, with half-yearly dividend, paying 40*l.* per share, per ann.—Oxford Canal, 450*l.* to 465*l.* per share; the last half-yearly dividend was 11*l.*—Grand Junction, 116*l.* with half-yearly dividends of 2*l.* per share; ditto bonds, 90*l.* for 100*l.*—Ellesmere, 53*l.* to 54*l.*—Kennet and Avon, new shares, 4*l.* 10*s.* per share prem.—Ashby, 22*l.* per share.—Globe, 116*l.* per cent.—West India Dock, 155*l.* to 156*l.* per cent, with half-yearly dividend of 5*l.* per cent.—London Dock, 117*l.* to 119*l.* to 116½*l.* per cent.